

SOFTWARE ANALYSIS OF MUSICAL  
INSTRUMENT TONES

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ABSTRACT

Computer based signal processing techniques provide important tools for the research of naturally occurring timbres. A system to digitally record and analyse natural sounds is described. The system interfaces to a large computing resource which supports spectral analysis software - allowing evaluation, and continual upgrading of the analysis techniques. Fourier transform methods are applied to pitch determination and spectral analysis of selected musical instruments. The final output of the analysis is a graphical representation of the harmonic and spectral landscapes of the various instruments.

Declaration

I declare that this dissertation is my own, unaided work. It is being submitted for the degree of Master of Science in the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other university.

C.S. ELION

14th day of February, 1983.

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## Preface

Music is undoubtedly one of man's oldest activities. Today in its various forms it is one of his most common activities.

Music production and reproduction has been influenced throughout history by the state of technology. Modern digital computers provide a new and fertile ground for the research and production of musical sounds.

The complex nature of musical tones has been considered by the likes of Pythagoras and Galileo, but only with the production of the first electronic music synthesizers was the inadequacy of simple waveforms in the generation of synthesized tones appreciated.

It is apparent that the prerequisite for a music synthesis system is an understanding of the nature and perception of musical tones. The following text describes the development and commission of a musical tone analysis environment, and its use in obtaining information regarding the structure of musical tones and their related perceptual effects - the goal being to synthesize new sounds with waveforms based on those of natural instrument sounds.

"a single intoned sound is meaningless in the sense of a musical investigation when, after onset or any other change, it becomes stationary or reaches a value which remains unchanged in time...

...in the laws of nature there is a relationship between the stationary sound structure and that of sound movement, or the onset process."

Fritz Winkel - on the dynamic nature of musical tones.

#### List of Abbreviations

ACIA - Asynchronous Communications Interface Adaptor  
AUC - Analog to Digital Converter  
CLI - Command Line Interpreter  
CPU - Central Processing Unit  
CV - Control Voltage  
DASHA - Data Acquisition System for Musical tone Analysis  
DRAM - Dynamic Random Access memory  
DMA - Direct memory Access  
I/O - Input/Output  
UEPS - Open Ended Problem Solver  
PDL - Program Description Language  
VCA - Voltage Controlled Amplifier  
VCF - Voltage Controlled Filter  
VCO - Voltage Controlled Oscillator

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### Presentation of Material

Chapter 1 introduces the historical background of electronic music synthesis and looks at some modern synthesis techniques.

Chapter 2 evaluates the requirements of music analysis and synthesis systems by an examination of the perceptual characteristics of the human auditory system. Two mathematical models for the synthesis of musical tones are presented.

Chapter 3 details the evolution of a design specification and the subsequent design of an audio frequency data capture and analysis system for musical instrument tone analysis.

Chapter 4 introduces the FORTRAN programming language. The design of the test, operating and maintenance software is flowcharted and presented in a program description language.

Chapter 5 discusses the application of fast Fourier transform techniques to selected musical tones. The results are discussed and presented in graphical form.

Chapter 6 evaluates the analysis environment and provides suggestions for future work in the field of electronic music analysis and synthesis.

## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces the historical background of electronic music synthesis and looks at some modern synthesis techniques.

1.1 A Brief History of Music Synthesis

Research into the generation of musical sounds is not new. Early musical instruments were developed by changing the lengths of strings, changing the sizes and shapes of soundboards and by changing the material of the component parts. Evaluation of the sounds generated by these instruments was purely by ear.

By the end of the nineteenth century, the development of acoustic instruments had leveled off, and the instruments of the orchestra were firmly established in the concert halls and music chambers of the world.

A radically new instrument was introduced in 1906 when the Telharmonium was installed in the Telharmonic Hall in New York. The Telharmonium used more than one hundred alternators (each capable of generating as much as 15 kilowatts of power) to generate music which was transmitted via telephone lines to subscribers. Electronic music had arrived.

The invention of the vacuum tube led to smaller and more usable electronic music synthesizers. One instrument that attracted much interest during the 1920s was the Theremin. The Theremin departed from convention in its user interface - instead of being played via a keyboard, it was played by moving the hands in the space surrounding the instrument.

The Hammond organ developed in the 1930s used the same principle of sound generation as the Telharmonium; however instead of large mechanical generators, tone wheels induced waveforms in adjacent coils.

The Solovox developed by the Hammond company was the first instrument to use modern synthesis techniques. It used a single tone generator and an assortment of waveshaping, filtering, frequency dividing and envelope-shaping circuits.

Early synthesizers, although innovative, produced unnatural sounds and were thus delegated to providing weird sounds for special effects and for background music in films.

Largely as a result of Dr. Robert Moog, whose name has become synonymous with synthesizers, second generation synthesizers appeared in the late 1960s. These synthesizers were modular in construction, and more important, the modules were controlled by a common parameter: voltage.

#### 1.1.1 Modern Techniques of music Synthesis

The modules and mechanisms of second-generation synthesizers have dictated the evolution of modern music synthesis techniques. These modules fall into three categories (figure 1.1):

1. waveform generation - modules consisting of various waveform oscillators whose frequencies are controlled by an input voltage, and noise generators for percussive and wind type sounds.
2. waveform modification - filters, amplifiers and mixers to modify the harmonic content of the waveforms - under voltage control.
3. waveform control - modulation hardware to give vibrato and tremolo effects.

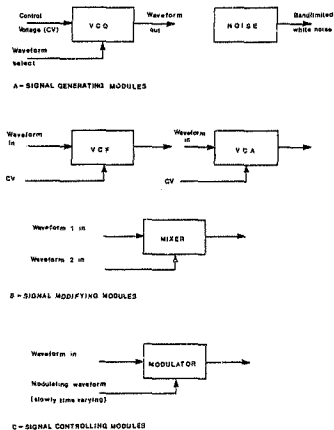


Figure 1.1 : Electronic Music Synthesis modules.

Second-generation synthesizers incorporated an assortment of these modules interconnected with patch cords somewhat like an old fashioned telephone switchboard. Control signals and audio signals were carried on two distinct signal paths. The control path carried signals corresponding to the changes in the parameters of the signal on the audio path. An example of voltage controlled synthesis is illustrated by figure 1.2. The control voltage (CV) controls a VCO as well as a VCF on the same audio signal path. A variation in the control voltage causes a change in generated frequency and a proportional change in the frequency band of the VCF. The output audio signal thus varies in frequency while maintaining a constant harmonic envelope. This is perceived as a varying pitch of consistent tone.



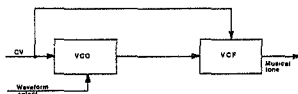


Figure 1.2 : Typical signal patch path in a voltage controlled synthesizer.

Signal patching allowed the maximum use of the resources of a few synthesis elements. It was difficult, however, to repeat intricate patch patterns and level settings with absolute accuracy - setting up a particular sound required time-consuming iterative methods. Users were therefore restricted to a small subset of the sounds when different patches were required in rapid succession.

The development of synthesizers with internally wired signal paths provided a partial solution to these restrictions. The modules in these instruments were wired together to provide the most versatile signal paths. Some had provision for limited variation of the patches. The result was a more usable instrument with reduced versatility, but increased repeatability.

The late 1970s saw the introduction of digital technology in electronic music analysis and synthesis - initially only in the form of storage and control systems for analog synthesizers. The control parameters were stored in digital memory, alleviating the tedium of repeated signal patching and parameter setting. Once a particular sound was found, the musician could assign it to a switch or button which, when activated, would "program" the synthesizer with the parameters stored in the memory addressed by the switch.

Digital computer technology is only beginning to influence electronic music synthesis. More recent synthesizers range from analog peripherals for the Apple microcomputer to dedicated sixteen-bit microprocessor-based systems employing advanced digital signal processing techniques.

## 1.2 Electronic Music Synthesis Techniques

### 1.2.1 Terminology

As an introduction to the techniques and terminology used in modern music research, it is useful to classify the various techniques of electronic music analysis and synthesis. This terminology will be used throughout this dissertation.

1. Synthesis-elements - the waveform generation, modification and controlling modules used in an electronic music synthesizer.
2. Tone-description parameters - the values of the functions used to control the timbres generated by the synthesis-elements.
3. Parameter-definition - the method used to derive the tone-description parameters.
4. Synthesis-technique - the method of using the tone-description parameters to control the synthesis-elements.
5. Technology - the Analog or Digital implementation of the synthesis-technique and parameter-definition.

The technology associated with the various synthesis techniques is given in table 1.1.

PARAMETER DEFINITION	SYNTHESIS TECHNIQUE	TECHNOLOGY
Direct	Subtractive	Analog
Analysis-based	Additive	Digital
Analysis-based	Subtractive	Digital
Direct	waveshaping	Digital
Direct	musique Concrete	Digital/Analog

Table 1.1: Common Synthesis Techniques and their implementations.

Most synthesizers use a combination of two or more of these techniques. Subtractive synthesis schemes, for example, often employ waveshaping techniques such as frequency modulation.

#### 1.2.2 Parameter Definition

1.2.2.1 Direct Synthesis - Direct synthesis is probably the oldest method of parameter definition, and has been the most widely used commercial technique over the last decade. With direct synthesis the synthesist intuitively controls the tone-description parameters.

Direct synthesis can be implemented on second generation analog synthesizers. The synthesist iteratively sets up the sound he desires by defining signal paths with patch cords and parameter settings on potentiometers and switches. Direct synthesis has also been implemented on digital computers. Several special purpose computer languages have been developed to implement the parallel processes of music synthesis.

These music synthesis languages define a series of computational modules, each representing a synthesis element. The modules are linked together (patched) to produce the output waveform. A "piece" of music is written as a program consisting of two parts:

1. Instrument definition - the various computational modules necessary to describe the sampled data waveform of the sound.
2. Event list - the sequence of musical events, their starting times, durations, and pitches.

These languages are useful for developing and evaluating signal paths which may later be either hard-wired or implemented on dedicated computer music systems. The languages are not limited to direct synthesis, in fact the computational modules may be fed with tone-description parameters derived from musical tone analysis.

1.2.2.2 Analysis-Based Synthesis - Analysis-based synthesis relies on the extraction of the tone-description parameters from the waveforms generated by an acoustic or electro-acoustic musical instrument. Digital computers are invaluable in the analysis of these musical tones. Many computationally efficient digital signal processing algorithms may be used to analyse musical sounds.

The aim of analysis-based synthesis systems is to create new musical sounds with the timbral character of natural instruments. Natural instrument sounds are thus a subset of the tones available on an analysis-synthesis system. The analysis system can be evaluated by the closeness of the synthesized sound to the original.

1.2.2.3 Musique Concrete - Musique concrete differs from both analysis-based and direct synthesis. No waveform generation takes place; instead, signal processing techniques are used to modify the sounds generated by musical instruments.

Musique concrete originated from the use of tape recorders to generate echo, phase shifting, flanging and chorus effects. The tape recorder in modern musique concrete has been replaced by digital computing systems which provide greater flexibility. Manipulation such as changing the pitch of a sound without changing

its duration, and changing the duration of a sound without changing its pitch are possible on digital systems.

### 1.2.3 Synthesis Techniques

1.2.3.1 Additive Synthesis - Involves the synthesis of a complex waveform by the addition of its component parts. Fourier Synthesis is the special case of additive synthesis where the component parts are the spectral components (sinusoids) of the synthesized waveform.

1.2.3.2 Subtractive Synthesis - The resultant waveform is generated by filtering out unwanted portions of a harmonically rich waveform.

1.2.3.3 Waveshaping Synthesis - Mathematical translations and relations make it computationally efficient to produce complex waveforms with time varying harmonic content. Le Brun [1] provides a comprehensive analysis of the existing techniques including Chowning's frequency modulation, see Chowning [2]. Although analysis-based waveform synthesis techniques are virtually unexplored, direct methods have been used to match the steady state harmonic spectra of many wind instruments.

## CHAPTER 2

### ANALYSIS-BASED MUSIC SYNTHESIS

The requirements of music analysis and synthesis systems are evaluated by an examination of the perceptual characteristics of the human auditory system. Two models for analysis-based music synthesis are presented.

## 2.1 The Perception of Musical Sound

The perception of musical tone is dependant on three parameters: pitch, loudness and timbre.

Pitch and loudness are readily understood. Timbre is best explained as the cumulative effect of everything besides pitch and loudness (the American Standards Association (1960) defines timbre as "that attribute of auditory sensation in terms of which a listener can judge that two sounds similarly presented and having the same loudness and pitch are dissimilar").

A music score conveys information to the musician regarding all three of these parameters:

1. Pitch - by the location of the notes on the staff,
2. Loudness - by expressions such as Pianissimo and Fortissimo, and
3. Timbre - by expressions such as Agitato, Brillante and Legato which describe an emotion that the piece is to convey - usually interpreted into the timbral qualities of the sounds.

Acoustic musical instruments provide physical contact between the musician and the acoustic mechanisms of the instrument - allowing experienced musicians to convey the emotive qualities of music by adding timbral-altering effects such as damping and vibrato.

Electronic Music Synthesizers are known for their lack of timbral control. New sounds soon become boring and notably synthetic, due to their *timbral rigidity*.

Three levels of timbral control are currently implemented on keyboard controlled synthesizers:

1. At the lowest level, the timbre is unvarying. More advanced techniques may base the rigid timbres on the characteristics of an acoustic instrument.
2. More interesting sounds are generated when some form of random or linear interpolation is used to vary the timbres of individual notes.
3. State-of-the-art experimental keyboards use two-dimensional velocity-sensing keys and keys capacitively coupled to the striking object (finger) to extract as much information as possible from the manner in which the key is struck. This information is used to control the timbral variations of the sound, enhancing the degree of communication between the musician and the instrument - allowing emotive timbral control through this interface.

Musical tone analysis is complicated by the perceptual inconsistencies of the human senses. To understand the effects of acoustic variations on the human auditory system, and to determine the extent to which data describing these variations need be specified, an examination of the perceptual characteristics of this complex hearing mechanism is presented in this chapter.

It should be noted that analytic descriptions of musical stimuli rely on perception. It is therefore not surprising that an enormous amount of experimentation is required to determine which perceptual data are reliable. Most experimental techniques are based on the presentation of musical tones of known characteristics to a jury of listeners ranging from the naive to the musically proficient, and evaluating their descriptions of the tones.



### 2.1.1 The Perception of Pitch

The pitch of a complex tone is always perceived as that of a pure tone at the frequency of the fundamental (which may not necessarily exist in the tone itself). The pitch perceived when the fundamental is not present in the complex tone is known as residue pitch.

Residue pitch has been extensively although not conclusively investigated. The classical theory is that pitch is attributed to the high relative loudness of the fundamental which may either exist in the tone itself or be introduced by non-linear effects of the ear. Contemporary theory is that the ear detects pitch from the periodicity of the soundwave.

After providing evidence that the non-linear distortion of the ear is too small to induce a perceived pitch corresponding to the missing fundamental, Plomp [3] conducted experiments with two complex stimuli presented successively. The second represented a 10% decrease in fundamental frequency and a 10% increase in the frequency of the second and higher harmonics. Observing that the 10% harmonic increase influenced the perceived pitch more than the 10% fundamental decrease, Plomp concluded that the pitch of complex tones is based on the periodicity of the soundwave, rather than the frequency of the "fundamental" component of the wave.

Many pitch-detection algorithms rely on the periodicity of the complex tone to estimate its pitch. Time-domain techniques analyse the periodicity of the time waveform itself, while in the frequency domain the most successful techniques estimate the pitch by analysing the periodicity of the frequency spectrum.

### 2.1.2 Consonance, Dissonance and Critical Bandwidth

Pythagoras is said to have been the originator of the theory of musical harmony. He discovered that tones produced by the vibration of strings with the integer length ratios 1:1, 1:2, 2:3 and 3:4 produced more appealing harmonies than other ratios. These intervals are called consonances. Other ratios, 4:5, 3:5, 5:6 and 5:8 are now included as "imperfect consonances" (it is on the character of the tones and harmonies generated by these intervals that western music has developed).

Plomp and Levelt [4] define consonance as "the peculiar sensorial experience associated with isolated tone pairs having simple frequency ratios".

Terhardt [5] defines consonance as the "undisturbed simultaneous sounding of pure tones", and defines the disturbing element which destroys consonance as roughness. Roughness is associated with the beats present when two pure tones of close frequency are sounded together. Terhardt claims that the consonance referred to by Plomp et al is governed by the frequency difference (critical bandwidth) rather than on the frequency ratio of pure tone pairs.

The consonance of complex tones sounded together is dependant upon the number of partials (see page 2-8) of the tones producing beat frequencies. This number is minimised when the fundamental frequencies of the complex tones are related by a ratio of small integers.

Ohm's acoustical law describes the ability of the human ear to decompose a complex tone into its sinusoidal components. To ascertain the number of distinguishable partials Plomp [6] conducted experiments using multitone signals, and showed that partials could be distinguished only if their frequency separation exceeds a critical bandwidth. For frequencies above 500 Kz a critical bandwidth is about 1/4 octave.

Pierce [7] used digital computer techniques to generate an experimental musical scale consisting of eight tones with a frequency ratio  $r$ , such that  $\log(r)=1/8$  (the equally tempered music scale has  $r$ , such that  $\log(r)=1/12$ ). He found that in accordance with the theory of critical bandwidth, the tones generated by partials separated by at least 1/4 octave sounded more consonant than tones generated by partials separated by 1/8 octave. Pierce concluded that "by providing music with tones that have accurately specified but nonharmonic partial structures, the digital computer can release western music from the tyranny of 12 tones without throwing consonance overboard".

### 2.1.3 Effect of Phase on Timbre

Plomp and Steeneken [8] found that the maximum effect of phase on timbre is smaller than a change of 2 dB of sound pressure level, and is less for high than for low frequencies. Their results also

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### 2.1.3 Effect of Phase on Timbre

Plomp and Steeneken [8] found that the maximum effect of phase on timbre is smaller than a change of 2 dB of sound pressure level, and is less for high than for low frequencies. Their results also

indicated that the effect of phase on timbre is independent of the harmonic amplitude pattern and the loudness.

#### 2.1.4 Effect of Harmonic Variations on Timbre

The question of the effect of the temporal evolution and cessation of harmonic structures in the recognition of musical instrument timbre was investigated by Berger [9]. Several wind instrument tones were recorded and played back, both unaltered and backward, with the attack and delay portions either removed or filtered. He concluded that the attack and release of a waveform seem to give the listener important clues to the recognition of the instrument.

On the basis of earlier work on the perception of timbre, Grey [10] used a method of analysis-based additive synthesis in a series of experiments to determine a measure of both the discriminability and perceptual distance between tones produced by analysis-synthesis or data-reduced synthesis techniques and the original tones upon which they were based.

Time-varying amplitude and frequency functions were obtained for each harmonic of a complex tone. The tone was then synthesized by summing a set of harmonic sinusoids controlled in time by the analysed functions.

The most relevant investigation carried out by Grey was on the extent to which data reduction techniques could be applied to the massive amount of data describing a single musical instrument tone. He synthesized four versions of the original tones using

1. Complex-synthesis - where the complex amplitude and frequency functions resulting from the analysis were used to control the parameters of a set of sinusoids.
2. Line-segment approximation - where four to eight line-segments per function were used to model the complex functions.
3. Cut-attack approximation - where a line-segment approximation as above was used, with initial low amplitude segments in the attack excluded.
4. Constant-Frequencies approximation - where a line-segment approximation was used with constant frequencies

substituted for the time-variant frequency functions.

The perceptual studies revealed that the extent of the data-reduction and the nature of the approximation (line-segment, cut-attack or constant-frequencies) have different, discriminable effects on the perceptual distance between the synthesized waveforms and the originals. The most successful data-reduction technique was the line-segment approximation in both the time and frequency domain. The cut-attack approximation was judged most discriminable. The constant frequency approximation, which is used in most additive synthesis schemes, was found to be very discriminable in several cases.

Mathews and Pierce [11] could not conclusively decide whether the perception of harmonic effects resulted from

1. Residue Pitch,
2. Critical Bandwidth, or
3. Cultural Brainwashing.

The perception of musical tones is clearly a complex phenomenon - an understanding of which is necessary as a starting point for the development of musical tone synthesis systems capable of timbrally rich sounds.

The following points are considered important:

1. Tones separated by a critical bandwidth are perceived as consonant.
2. The pitch of complex tones results from the effect of the periodicity of the soundwave and not from any frequency present in the soundwave.
3. The relative phases of the harmonics of a complex tone have a small effect on the perception of the tone.
4. The attack portion of a natural musical instrument tone is very important for the recognition of the sound.
5. Line-segment approximations can be applied as data-reduction techniques to both the frequency and amplitude description functions of the complex musical tone.

## 2.2 Analysis-Based Synthesis Models

Associated with the acoustic waveforms of most musical instruments are frequency spectra exhibiting partial frequencies at near-integer multiples of the fundamental frequency. It is often convenient to refer to these partials as harmonics even though they do not always occur at exactly integer multiples of the fundamental.

In the following text the term partial refers to activity at unconstrained frequencies, and harmonic is used to describe partials at frequencies which are near-integer multiples of the fundamental.

This type of harmonic generation is characteristic of the vibration modes of reeds, organ pipes and stretched strings (appendix B).

Musical tones exhibiting harmonic spectra are termed voiced, while percussive instruments such as bells and drums which are characterized by inharmonic spectra are termed unvoiced.

### 2.2.1 The Subtractive Synthesis Model

Acoustic musical instruments exhibit properties similar to those of the speech production mechanism. On the basis of these similarities, the mathematical equivalent developed for the production of synthetic speech can easily be applied to musical tone synthesis.

Consider the physical structure of any musical instrument. The instrument has two important components.

1. A source of mechanical vibration - reed, string, skin etc.
2. A resonant body - bowl, drum, tube etc.

The source of mechanical vibration produces an excitation waveform which is acoustically coupled to the resonant body. The acoustic circuit of the instrument can be represented by the electrical analog of figure 2.1.

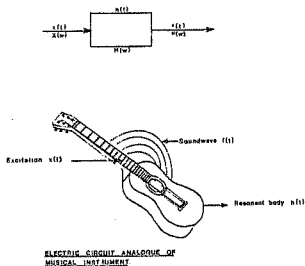


Figure 2.1 Analogy between electric circuit frequency response and musical instrument resonance.

$x(t)$ =excitation waveform,  $h(t)$ =impulse response of resonant body,  $f(t)$ =output signal (musical tone),  $X(w)$ =frequency spectrum of input (excitation waveform),  $H(w)$ =transfer function (resonances of instrument),  $F(w)$ =frequency spectrum of output (acoustic waveform).

In accordance with the electrical analogy, the resonances of the musical instrument's body cause enhancements or depressions in the frequency spectrum associated with the excitation waveform. The enhanced (resonant) frequency bands form spectral "humps" (figure 2.2) which are known as formant regions.

If the formant regions are represented by a cascade of bandpass filters, the formants occur where the centre frequencies of the bandpass filters would lie.

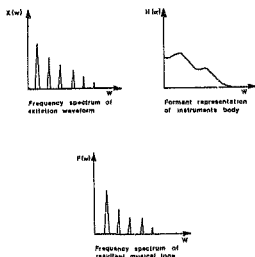


Figure 2.2: Spectrum of excitation waveform and formants associated with musical instrument tones.

The parameters of the acoustic wave vary slowly with time so that for a short section of the wave the parameters can be approximated as stationary. The musical instrument tone  $f(t)$  can thus be viewed as the time convolution of the excitation waveform  $x(t)$  with the impulse response  $h(t)$  of the instruments resonant body.

$$f(t)=x(t)*h(t) \quad \text{-----(1)}$$

And in terms of the Fourier Transform.

$$F(w)=X(w).H(w) \quad \text{-----(2)}$$



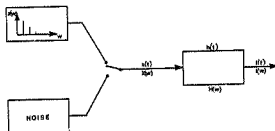


Figure 2.3: Model for subtractive synthesis of musical instrument tones.

Figure 2.3 shows the model for subtractive synthesis of musical instrument sounds. The excitation waveform  $x(t)$  can be either

1. a harmonically rich waveform having spectral components at every partial frequency for voiced sounds, or
2. bandlimited white noise for unvoiced sounds.

$X(w)$  is fed into a formant filter which models the frequency response  $H(w)$  of the instrument. The formant filter dictates the harmonic content of the synthesized waveform by "carving" out the unwanted harmonics of  $X(w)$ . This removal of unwanted harmonics gives the technique the name subtractive synthesis. Natural timbres are achieved when  $H(w)$  and  $X(w)$  are time varying functions controlled by the tone-description parameters resulting from a musical tone analysis.

### 2.2.2 Pitch and Formant Detection

Many algorithms have been proposed - the most widely used being cepstrum pitch detection. The cepstrum technique is particularly useful for the subtractive synthesis model as it provides pitch, formant and voiced/unvoiced information.

### 2.2.3 Cepstrum Pitch Determination

Applying Discrete Fourier Transform analysis to a finite record of the digitized musical instrument tone  $f(t)$  of period  $T$ , the square of the magnitude of the Fourier Transform is the Power Spectrum  $|F(w)|^2$  consisting of harmonics spaced at  $1/T$  Hz. The Power Spectrum is thus periodic and equal to:

$$|F(w)|^2 = |X(w)|^2 \cdot |H(w)|^2 \quad \text{-----}(3)$$

The time domain convolution of the excitation waveform and the impulse response of the resonant body of the instrument has now been converted to a multiplication in the frequency domain.

For the purpose of analysis, it is convenient to separate these two parameters. Taking the logarithm:

$$\log |F(w)|^2 = \log |X(w)|^2 + \log |H(w)|^2 \quad \text{--}(4)$$

$$= \log |X(w)|^2 + \log |H(w)|^2 \quad \text{--}(5)$$

The significance of this is that the time domain convolution has been transformed into a linear combination of the two expressions (addition). This is illustrated in figure 2.4(a). Deconvolution of waveforms in this manner is known as Homomorphic filtering and is described by Oppenheim et al [12] and specifically for the speech waveform by Oppenheim and Schaffer [13].

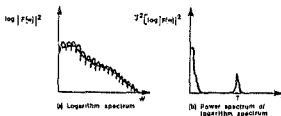


Figure 2.4: Homomorphic processing of slowly time varying acoustic waveforms.

The effect of the frequency response of the instrument's body is to produce the low frequency ripple in the logarithm spectrum, the "humps" of which are the formants. The high frequency ripple superimposed upon the frequency response is the logarithmic power spectrum of the excitation waveform - it exhibits a strong periodicity. The Fourier transform of the logarithm power spectrum

shows a peak corresponding to the periodicity of these high frequency ripples as well as activity related to the low frequency ripple (Figure 2.4(b)).

This representation is known as the cepstrum. Noll [14] and Childers et al [15] provide detailed discussions and applications information on this technique. Cepstral quantities exist in the time domain with similar properties to spectral quantities in the frequency domain. The names given to the cepstral quantities are derived from those of the parallel spectral quantities:

spectrum	-----	cepstrum
frequency	-----	quefrequency
phase	-----	saphe
amplitude	-----	gamnitude
filtering	-----	liftering
harmonic	-----	rahmonic
period	-----	repiod

Cepstrum and quefrequency are, however, the only terms in common usage.

Cepstral analysis provides the parameters for the subtractive synthesis model. The peak at T in figure 2.4(b) shows activity at a quefrequency of T seconds, this corresponds to the high frequency ripple and is the pitch-period of the excitation waveform. The low time activity is due to the frequency response of the instrument. The formants are obtained by short-pass liftering (low-pass filtering) the logarithm power spectrum.

Zero high-quefrequency activity indicates a non-periodic spectrum and thus an unvoiced excitation waveform.

#### 2.2.4 The Additive Synthesis Model

Consider again the musical instrument tone  $f(t)$ . This signal can be expressed in terms of any set of complete orthogonal functions,  $\phi_k(t)$ , such that:

$$f(t) = \sum_k f_k \phi_k(t) \quad \text{-----}(6)$$

where:  $f_k$ : is the weighting factor  
of the function  $\phi_k(t)$

$f(t)$  can thus be represented by a summation of signals  $\phi_k(t)$  of amplitudes  $f_k$ . This is the basis of the additive synthesis models.

A wide variety of orthogonal functions are available, such as exponential functions, trigonometric functions and Walsh functions.

Two find immediate application:

1. Exponential functions (Fourier) and
2. Walsh functions

Walsh functions are generated from a set of non-uniform-duty-cycle rectangular functions taking on the values +1 and -1. The periodicity of Walsh functions is measured by the average number of zero crossings per second (zps) and is known as sequency.

Walsh transforms are computationally more efficient than their Fourier counterpart due to the binary nature of the Walsh functions (sine and cosine functions are replaced by +1 and -1).

However it is useful to develop the additive synthesis model using Fourier transform methods because frequency is conceptually easily understood. This does not prohibit the use of other techniques to implement the sound analysis and synthesis. A hypothetical analysis-synthesis system could perform all analysis and synthesis computations using Walsh transforms and, when user interaction is required, represent the sequency information in terms of frequency through the use of Walsh/Fourier conversions.

Hoover [16] proposes a versatile model for additive synthesis using frequency domain techniques.

$$F(n) = \sum_{k=1}^M A_k(n) \sin[nT[kw + 2\pi D_k(n)]] \quad --(7)$$

Where:

$F(n)$ : Value at time  $nT$

$n$  : sample number.

$T$  : Time between consecutive samples  
(Sampling period).

$w$  : Fundamental frequency of  
tone (radians).

$k$  : Harmonic (partial) number.

$M$  : Number of partials.

$A_k(n)$  : Amplitude of partial  $k$  at time  
 $nT$  (slowly time varying).

$D_k(n)$  : Frequency deviation of harmonic  
 $k$  at time  $nT$  (slowly time varying).

Frequency analysis methods are applied to a digitized natural instrument tone  $F(n)$  to determine the slowly time-varying partial frequencies  $[kw + 2\pi D_k(n)]$  and their amplitudes  $A_k(n)$ . These functions can then be approximated by data reduction techniques and used to drive sound-generation hardware similar to that shown in figure 2.5.

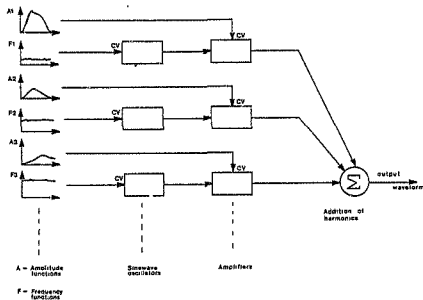


Figure 2.5: Additive synthesis model for the generation of complex tones using spectral components (sinewaves). Each partial is controlled in amplitude and frequency by the tone-description parameters ( $A_k$  and  $F_k$ , where  $k$ =harmonic number) derived from a spectral analysis.

Frequency domain methods allow the musician/synthesist to vary the timbral characteristics of natural sounds and intuitively to generate new musical tones with the perceptual qualities of natural musical instruments.

### CHAPTER 3

#### DEVELOPING A MUSICAL TONE ANALYSIS SYSTEM

A system capable of audio frequency data capture and analysis is required for the proposed examination of the characteristics of musical instrument tones. In this chapter the evolution of a design specification and the subsequent design of an audio frequency data capture and analysis system for musical instrument tone analysis is presented.

### 3.1 Evolution of a Specification

This dissertation is concerned with discrete-time models of musical tones - the broad term objectives being:

1. to analyse musical instrument tones using digital signal processing techniques,
2. to obtain a quantitative representation of the characterizing parameters of the musical instrument tones, and
3. to create an environment for evaluating different analysis techniques.

Electronic music is only beginning to exhibit the influence of digital signal processing techniques in the analysis and synthesis of musical tones; therefore, rather than a dedicated musical instrument tone analysis system, a general purpose data analysis system constitutes an ideal environment for developing music analysis and related digital signal processing strategies.

A system satisfying these requirements would:

1. digitize audio frequencies up to about 18 KHz,
2. subsequently process these signals with user-programmable digital signal processing techniques,
3. allow interactive programming of analysis algorithms for their evaluation.

These requirements can be met by using a large computing resource in conjunction with an audio frequency data capture facility. The design of this data acquisition system is presented here.



### 3.1.1 Resources

A large library of digital signal processing software has been developed in the department as part of a larger "Open Ended Problem Solver" (OEPS) package. (see Hanrahan [17]). Consultation with the author of the package led to the realisation that the signal processing software available on OEPS and the structure of the package made it a powerful environment for the analysis of musical tones. All that was needed was a data acquisition system interfacing it to the analog environment. An ANALOGIC MP6912 12 bit linear Pulse Code Modulation (PCM) ADC was made available for this purpose.

OEPS resides on the departmental Data General Eclipse S/140 minicomputer and is written in BASIC. The task was to interface the ADC to the ECLIPSE, to establish a general purpose data capture system for the OEPS software - primarily for musical instrument tone analysis.

The ECLIPSE, being a multi-user system and often under considerable demand, was not to be burdened with the overhead of controlling the data capture system. The hardware was thus designed to operate independently of the host computer - as a stand alone unit capable of the necessary data manipulation prior to the data being transferred to the host computer.

### 3.1.2 Data Storage

Storage of any significant amount of digitized audio waveform requires a large digital memory. State-of-the-art 64 Kilobit (Kbit) Dynamic Random Access Memory (DRAM) provides a compact and economic solution to large memory arrays; however, the use of these devices places certain constraints on system design. Unlike static RAMS which can be written into and read from with minimal control of the read/write process, DRAMs require accurate timing waveforms during the read/write and subsequent refresh cycles to ensure data retention.

### 3.2 Data Acquisition System: Functional Specification

For purposes of abbreviation the Data Acquisition System is referred to as DASHA (Data Acquisition System for Musical tone Analysis (Figure 3.1)).

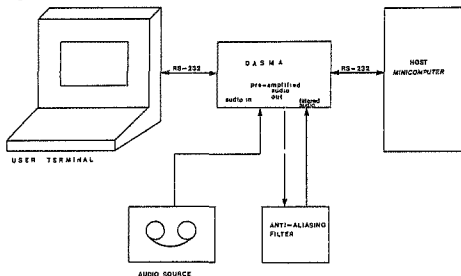


Figure 3.1: Functional representation of the data acquisition system environment.

The system functions can be summarised as follows:

1. DASHA communicates with the user and the host minicomputer over two separate serial data links.
2. Data transfer to the host is under a high level but simple protocol so that DASHA may readily communicate with other host computers besides the ECL SE.
3. host-dependant activities such as direct memory access or interrupting are avoided by including a large temporary data storage facility in the data acquisition hardware. This memory is expandable in 64 kilobyte blocks. - The digitized data is stored in this memory and then transferred to the host under full program control.
4. The software creates a user-friendly environment through a command line interpreter, allowing user entry of simple commands which set the various functional modes.

5. Programmable functions include the data link baudrate as well as the ADC sampling frequency - which is both software and hardware programmable.
6. Analog to digital conversions are software enabled, and are initiated when analog signals above a preset threshold are detected.
7. A terminal simulation program allows direct user interaction with the host.

### 3.3 Data acquisition System: Technical specification

System performance and hardware costs were main considerations determining the specification and the subsequent design. Use was made of suitable resources available from the university - particular items being the ADC and the card frame in which DASMA is housed.

#### 3.3.1 Analog to Digital Conversion

audio frequencies lie between 20 and 20000 Hz - a target sampling frequency is therefore about 60 KHz. (This could become a standard for professional digital audio systems). Lesser (10) reports a maximum design goal of 90 dB dynamic range for perceptually lossless digital representation of the audio waveform.

The analogue P9912 provides a dynamic range of approximately 72 dB (12 bit ADC) and a maximum sampling frequency of 100 KHz. This dynamic range is comparable with professional quality analog recording equipment.

#### 3.3.2 Data Storage

data is stored in a memory array consisting of 64 Kilobyte x 12 bit blocks of Dynamic Random Access Memory (DRAM), only one of which is installed in the prototype (although addressing facilities for three more are provided).

The required memory size is determined from the following equation.

$$\text{MEMORY SIZE} = \text{SAMPLING RATE} \times \text{DATA DURATION}$$

where: memory size is measured in Kilobytes  
(Kbytes)

Sampling rate in Kilohertz (KHz)

Data duration in seconds (s)

The prototype can convert and store 2 seconds of audio data at a sampling frequency of 32 KHz.

### 3.3.3 System Architecture

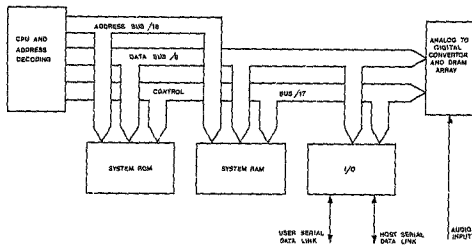


Figure 3.2 : Functional representation of the DASHA processor architecture.

The architecture of DASHA is best understood through an examination of Figure 3.2. The system is shown to exhibit a standard processor bus structure. System activities are centered around the CPU address, control and data busses. The ADC and surrounding circuitry constitute a second hardwired ADC and Direct Memory Access (ADC/DMA) processor controlled directly by the CPU (shown in greater detail in figure 3.5, page 3-11).

1. The CPU controls all data acquisition and manipulation prior to the data being transmitted to the host computer. It consists of a 6502 microprocessor running at a 1 MHz clock rate plus 10 Kilobytes of system software in ROM.
2. A FORTH compiler, resident in ROM, forms the core of the system software which at a high-level emulates a Command Line Interpreter (CLI) at the user terminal.
3. At Power up, a menu of functions is displayed on the user terminal. These are all system level software functions. The menu may be recalled at any time by pressing the ESC key on the user terminal. A users manual and recommended operating procedure is given in appendix A. Development software written in FURTH may be interactively programmed

by the user. Utility software has been written and is documented in chapter 4.

4. Two RS-232 data links communicate between DASHA, the user terminal and the host computer. The data link protocols are software programmable. Default operation is as a 2400 baud bidirectional data link with no parity check. DASHA is as portable as the RS-232 standard.
5. The analog interface amplifies 100 mV to 1 volt signals with 20 to 20000 KHz bandwidth to -10 to +10 volt signals. The circuitry consists of a variable gain input preamplifier, connections for an external pre-sampling filter, and signal detection circuitry which provides a trigger pulse to initiate analog to digital conversions.
6. The analog to digital converter (ANALOGIC HP 6912) is configured for a +10 to -10 volt input voltage and produces linear PCM 12 bit 2's complement binary output with a sampling frequency variable up to 60 KHz under program control.
7. The DRAM is interfaced to the ADC data bus. When data acquisition is enabled by the CPU, the DRAM interface provides address and control information to write the 12 bit data to the DRAM under DMA control.
8. The DASHA software occupies addresses 9FE0H to 9FFFH on the 6502 processor memory map (figure 3.3, page 3-9). A series of data latches at these addresses completely controls the interaction between the CPU and the ADC/DMA processor, the dynamic memory array, and the serial I/O devices (Asynchronous Communication Interface Adaptors).

ADDRESS HEX	
FFFF     F000	* interrupt vector * restart vector * interrupt service routines. * startup program.
EFFF   E000	NOT USED
DFFF         C000	* DASIA - FORTH vocabulary. * data capture and data transfer programs. * FORTH system and compiler based on the ROCKWELL implementation of FIG-FORTH.
AFFF   A000	NOT USED
9FFF   9F00	* port addresses through which the CPU accesses DASIA.
9F0F   0800	NOT USED
7FFF   0200     0100   0000	* program execution RAM. * FORTH system variables. * page ZERO.

FIGURE 3.3: DASIA 6502 CPU memory map.

#### 3.4 Detail of the Design

##### 3.4.1 Physical construction

ASNA is housed in a VERO 3U, 160 mm deep card frame with guide rails for 34 VERO card tightly spaced, and half that loosely spaced. The cards used are W D.I.P board no. 10-0145 A. These cards plug into edge connector VERO 14-0207E, which has 42 pins.

The size of the cards prevents the use of a uniform bus structure - instead the required card inter-connections are hardwired and each card has its unique slot in the card frame.

Figure 3.4 shows an illustration of the physical dimensions of the card frame.

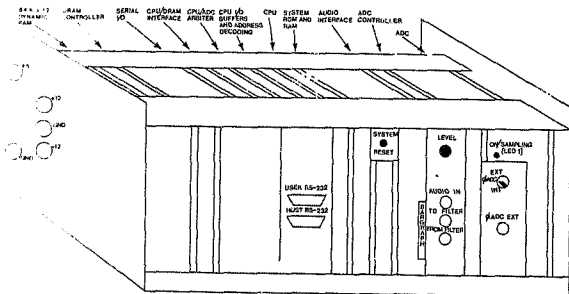


Figure 3.4: Illustration of the data capture system.



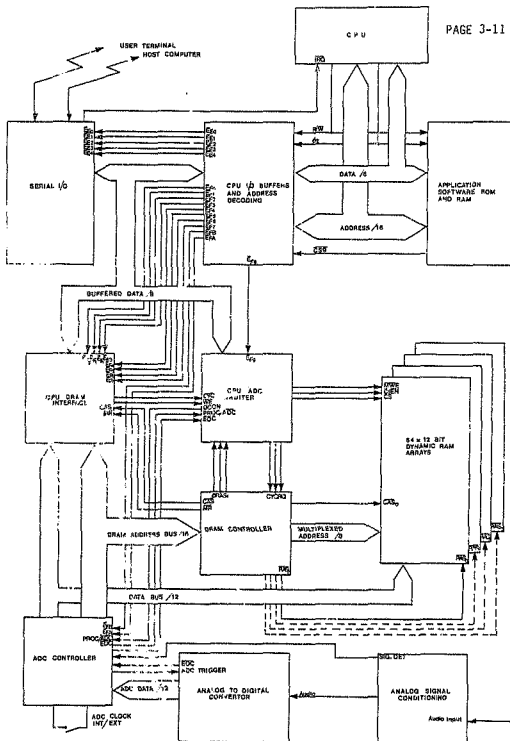


Figure 3.5: Functional block diagram of DASH/A showing detail of the CPU, the ADC/DMA processor and the separate processor busses.

### 3.4.2 The Central Processing Unit (CPU)

The CPU consists of a 1 MHz 6502 microprocessor and a FORTH-based operating system residing in 10 kilobytes of ROM. System software is designed to provide user-friendly interaction via a menu-driven command line interpreter (described in chapter 4 - System Software).

### 3.4.3 System Synchronization Clock

The synchronization clock provides all the timing (excluding the CPU clock) throughout DASIA (Figure 3.6). All DRAM cycles occur synchronously to this clock.

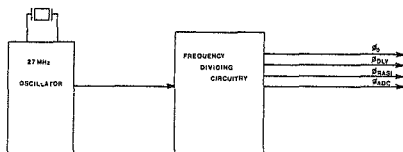


Figure 3.6: System synchronization clock generation module. A 27 MHz 3rd-overtone, series-resonant quartz crystal forms the heart of the system timing.

The system clock is divided synchronously to provide the following timing waveforms:

1. Refresh Clock ( $\phi_0$ ) - this 27 MHz clock provides accurate edges at multiples of 35 ns for DRAM timing waveforms.
2. Delay Clock ( $\phi_{0.5}$ ) - this 13.5 MHz clock is used to extend very quick pulses generated during system activity - usually by clocking the signals through D-type flip-flops.
3. RASI Clock ( $\phi_{RASI}$ ) - this 1.68 MHz clock is used to initiate refresh cycles during burst mode refresh, and to synchronize CPU command signals with DRAM refresh cycles.
4. ADC Clock ( $\phi_{ADC}$ ) - this 105.5 KHz clock divided down by the ADC controlling circuitry (under program control) is used as the sampling frequency for the analog to digital

converter.

#### 3.4.4 Processor I/O Buffers and address decoding

This is the communications interface between the CPU and the DRAM, the ADC/DMA processor, and the serial I/O unit. Device addresses are decoded for addressing peripheral circuitry.

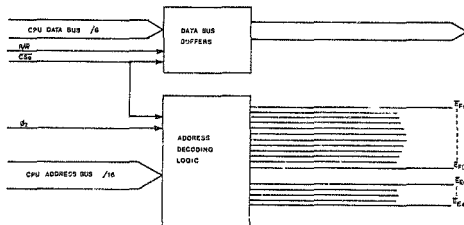


Figure 3.7: Processor I/O Buffers and Address Decoding.

ADDRESS RANGE (HEX)	FUNCTION	SYMBOL
9FE0 to 9FE7	Serial data I/O control	$\bar{E}_{E0}$ to $\bar{E}_{E7}$
9FF0 to 9FF7	Interface to DRAM	$\bar{E}_{F0}$ to $\bar{E}_{F7}$
9FF0 to 9FFF	Various system controls	$\bar{E}_{F8}$ to $\bar{E}_{FF}$

Table 3.1: Address bus decoded to control functions  
 $\bar{E}_{E0}$  through  $\bar{E}_{FF}$

Reliable propagation of bidirectional data is ensured by bidirectional bus drivers at strategic intervals between the CPU and the peripherals.

#### 3.4.5 CPU/ADC Arbitrator

The CPU/ADC arbiter resolves CPU and ADC DRAM access requests and synchronizes the requests to the current activity of the DRAM.

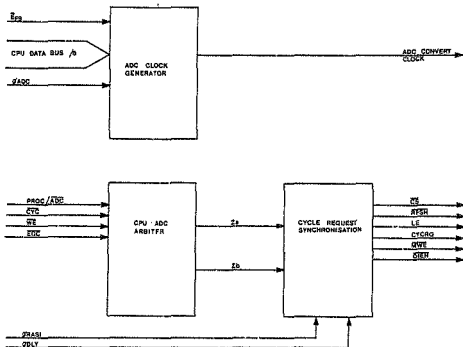


Figure 3.d: CPU/ADC Arbiter Block diagram. All memory access cycle requests are synchronized to the current activity of the DRAM.

#### 1. INPUTS

1.  $\bar{E}_{P0}$  - latches the 8 bit number on the CPU data bus into the ADC clock generator.
2.  $f_{ADC}$  - 105,5 KHz clock - divided by the number in the ADC clock generator latch to give the ADC convert clock.
3.  $PROC/ADC$  - indicates to the arbiter whether DRAM access requests are from the CPU or the ADC/DMA processor as follows:

1 - CPU

0 - ADC/DMA processor.

4.  $\overline{CTG}$  - indicates CPU-initiated DRAM access cycle - its state is reflected on Z1 when  $PROC/ADC=1$ .

5.  $\overline{WE}$  - indicates whether the CPU DRAM access cycle is a read or write cycle - its state is reflected on  $Z_b$  when  $PROC/\overline{ADC}=1$ .
6.  $\overline{EOC}$  - initiates DRAM write cycles when  $PROC/\overline{ADC}=0$  - its state is reflected on  $Z_a$  and  $Z_b$  when  $PROC/\overline{ADC}=0$ .
7.  $\phi_{RASI}$  - executes continuous DRAM refresh cycles and is used to synchronize all DRAM access requests to the refresh cycles.
8.  $\phi_{OLY}$  - used to derive short timing pulses from input state changes.

## 2. OUTPUTS

1. ADC CONVERT CLOCK ( $\phi_{CON}$ ) - sampling rate clock for analog to digital conversions.
2.  $\overline{CS}$  - chip select for memory data bus drivers.
3.  $\overline{RFSH}$  - halts continuous refresh after finishing the current refresh cycle - synchronously with ( $\phi_{RASI}$ ).
4.  $LE$  - indicates that the address information on the DRAM address bus is valid.
5.  $CYCRO$  - synchronous DRAM access-cycle request.
6.  $\overline{WE}$  - controls the read/write lines of the DRAM.
7.  $\overline{DIEN}$  - direction control for the bidirectional memory data bus drivers.

The DRAM is normally undergoing continuous refresh cycles controlled by  $\phi_{RASI}$ . Memory access cycles occur as follows:

1. CPU memory access:  $PROC/\overline{ADC} = 1$   
 $\overline{CYC}$  and  $\overline{WE}$  are reflected on  $Z_a$  and  $Z_b$  respectively and control the DRAM-access cycles completely.
2. ADC memory access:  $PROC/\overline{ADC} = 0$   
 $\overline{EOC}$  is reflected on  $Z_a$  and  $Z_b$  and controls the DRAM-access cycles completely.
3.  $Z_a = 0$  - initiates a memory-access cycle of type (read or write) dependant upon  $Z_b$ .

4.  $\overline{RFSH}$  is pulled high on the completion of the current memory refresh cycle.
5. The LE pulse is generated on the next  $\phi_{RAS}$  cycle and a  $CYCRQ$  pulse slightly later (controlled by  $\phi_{OLY}$ )

These output signals control the next memory access cycle as follows:

1.  $\overline{CS}$  - selects the memory data bus drivers.
2.  $\overline{RWE}$  - read/write cycle indicator to DRAM.
3.  $\overline{DIR}$  - direction control for memory data bus drivers.
4.  $\overline{RFSH}$  - halts refresh cycles.
5. LE - latches the address of the current DRAM access cycle into the address multiplexing circuitry.
6.  $CYCRQ$  - initiates a DRAM access request via the DRAM controller.

Figure 3.10 on page 3-21 illustrates the waveform timing during DRAM read and write cycles.

#### 3.4.6 CPU/Dynamic RAM interface

Four blocks of 64K x 12 bit DRAM exist on the 6502 memory map as an I/O port at addresses 9FF0H to 9FFFH inclusive (the prototype uses only one block of DRAM - expansion is readily implemented by providing the extra address lines  $A_0$  and  $A_1$  - see DRAM controller).

This I/O port consists of three registers - each consisting of data latches accessed by the CPU through control lines  $\overline{EP}_0$  through  $\overline{EP}_2$ . The registers hold information completely describing the current, previous or next memory cycle.

1. Control register - a transparent latch accessed by  $\overline{EP}_0$ . The two least significant bits of the CPU data bus are reflected on its output as  $\overline{CYC}$  and  $\overline{WE}$  - when  $\overline{EP}_0$  is pulsed. These outputs are reset by a low going transition on  $\overline{RWE}$ . The state of  $\overline{CYC}$  and  $\overline{WE}$  determine the DRAM activity (when the CPU is in control of the DRAM).

2. DRAM address register - an 18 bit latch with tri-state outputs which are enabled when a CPU DRAM access cycle is requested. Address information is written into this register as one 2 bit and two 3 bit words by the CPU writing to locations 9FF0H, 9FF1H and 9FF3H. This information represents the DRAM address at which the next DRAM access cycle will occur.
3. DRAM Data Register - functions as a 12 bit bidirectional data latch with tri-state outputs, it uses two unidirectional latches connected back to back - referred to as the write-data-register, and the read-data-register. Data is written to the write-data-register by the CPU as one 4 bit and one 3 bit data word at CPU addresses 9FF3H and 9FF4H. This data is reflected on the DRAM data bus as one 12 bit data word during a CPU-initiated DRAM write cycle.  
During a DRAM read cycle the 12 bit data is written into the read-data-register by the DRAM controlling circuitry via CAS<sub>0</sub>. This data can then be read by the processor as two 3 bit bytes at locations 9FF6H and 9FF7H.

Note that in the software documentation (Chapter 4) these registers are referred to as:

1. the control-register,
2. the address-register,
3. the write-data-register, and
4. the read-data-register respectively.



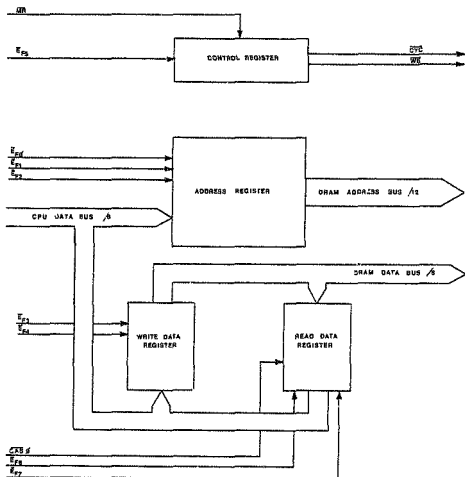


Figure 3.9: Dynamic RAM Interface Block Diagram. The CPU/DRAM interface is the only control and data link between the CPU and the DRAM. All CPU-initiated DRAM access cycles occur via this interface.

#### 1. Memory Write Cycle

1. The CPU writes information describing the data and the address at which it is to be written in DRAM to the data and address registers.
2. the binary number 11 (three) is then written to the control register, the negative edge of  $E_{FS}$  causes  $CYC$  and  $WE$  to go low.

$\overline{CYC}=0$  enables the output of the address-register putting the DRAM address on the memory address bus.

$\overline{WE}=0$  enables the outputs of the write-data-register, putting the data on the memory data bus.

$\overline{CYC}$  and  $\overline{WE}$  propagate through the system to the DRAM controller causing a memory-write cycle. On completion of which  $\overline{MR}$  is pulled low by the DRAM controller - resetting the contents of the control register causing  $\overline{CYC}$  and  $\overline{WE}$  to go high and inactive.

2. The memory Read Cycle executes in a similar manner to the write cycle.
  1. Data representing the DRAM address which is to be read is written to the address-register,
  2. the binary number 10 (two) is written to the control-register causing  $\overline{CYC}$  to go low while  $\overline{WE}$  remains high.  $\overline{CYC}=0$  puts the memory address on the DRAM address bus.
  3. The states of  $\overline{CYC}$  and  $\overline{WE}$  cause the DRAM controller to execute a memory-read cycle during which data is put on the DRAM data bus.  $\overline{CAS}_0$  is then pulled low by the DRAM controller causing the data to be latched into the read-data-register.
  4. A valid read cycle is completed about 370 ns after  $\overline{CYC}$  goes low. The processor may thus in the next instruction (a minimum of 500 ns later) read the read-data-register and subsequently process the data.

#### 3.4.7 Dynamic RAM Controller

Industry standard 64 Kbit DRAMs require refreshing every 2 ms. This can be implemented in several ways - in this case the DRAMs undergo continuous refresh. Any DRAM read or write cycle is accomplished by:

1. the CPU or ADC controller requesting the read/write cycle

( $\overline{CYC}=0$  or  $\overline{EQC}=0$ ),

2. latching the read/write commands until completion of the current refresh cycle,
3. halting the refresh circuitry ( $\overline{RFSH}=1$ ),
4. executing the read/write cycle,
5. resetting the cycle request ( $\overline{PRR}=0$ ), and
6. restarting the refresh circuitry ( $\overline{RFSH}=0$ ).

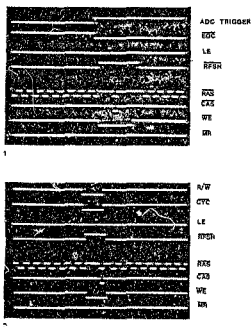


Figure 3.10. DRAM access cycles:  
1.  $\mu$ C-write cycle  
2. CPU-write cycle

DRAM refresh cycles are of the order of five times as fast as CPU instruction cycles. Time is thus available to synchronize the processor cycle requests to the refresh circuitry as described above.

The DRAM Controller is built around an Advanced Micro Devices AM2964 DRAM controller (VLSI integrated circuit). The AM2964 provides the following functions:

1. Multiplexing the memory address bus.
2. Row address decoding - selection of one of four memory banks.
3. Refresh address generation.

Further circuitry (figure 3.11) uses a serial-in-parallel-out shift register (clocked by  $\phi_0$ ) to generate the DRAM timing waveforms.

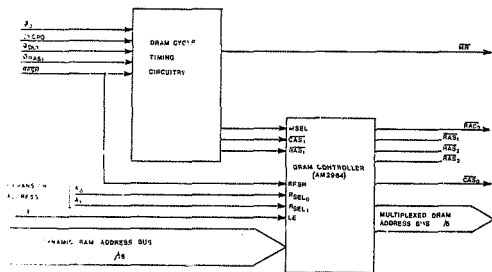


Figure 3.11: Dynamic RAM Controller

#### 1. INPUTS

1.  $\phi_0$  - 27MHz clock used to generate timing waveforms.
2.  $CYCKQ$  - A pulse on this input initiates DRAM access cycles.
3.  $\phi_{DLY}$  - Used to extend the  $\phi_{RAS}$  pulse.
4.  $\phi_{RAS}$  - Continuously refreshes the DRAM when idling.
5.  $RFSH$  - When high terminates continuous mode refresh.

6. A<sub>0</sub> and A<sub>1</sub> - Expansion memory addresses select addressed 64 Kbyte memory bank.
7. LE - Latches the address of the memory access cycle into the Am2964.
8. ADDRESS BUS - 16 bit address of memory access cycle in the DRAM bank selected by A<sub>0</sub> and A<sub>1</sub>.

## 2. OUTPUTS

1.  $\overline{TR}$  - Low going pulse indicates the completion of a memory access cycle.
2.  $\overline{RAS_0}$  - Row Address Strobe for DRAM bank 0.
3.  $\overline{RAS_1}$  - Row Address Strobe for DRAM bank 1.
4.  $\overline{RAS_2}$  - Row Address Strobe for DRAM bank 2.
5.  $\overline{RAS_3}$  - Row Address Strobe for DRAM bank 3.
6.  $\overline{CAS_0}$  - Column Address Strobe, used for all DRAM banks.
7. MULTIPLEXED ADDRESS - 16 bit multiplexed DRAM address bus.

### 3.4.3 Analog to Digital Converter Controller

The ADC controller is the logical link between the DRAM and the analog to digital converter. When initialised by the CPU it takes complete control of the analog to digital conversion process and the writing of digitized data to the DRAM under a DMA environment.

The ADC controller interfaces to the DRAM data and address busses through tri-state data latches.

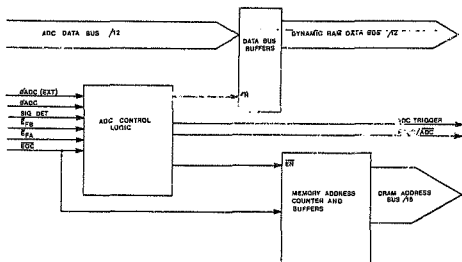


Figure 3.12 Analog to Digital Converter Controller block diagram.

#### 1. INPUTS

1. ADC data bus - 12 bit data directly from the outputs of the ADC.
2.  $\phi\text{ADC(EXT)}$  - connection for an external ADC conversion (sampling) rate clock.
3.  $\phi\text{ADC}$  - Internal ADC conversion clock, programmable by the user.
4.  $\text{SIG DET}$  - A pulse is generated on this line by the analog signal detection circuitry. If the ADC controller is in the convert-standby mode when this pulse occurs, the system will begin analog to digital conversions at a sampling rate determined by  $\phi\text{ADC}$ .
5.  $\overline{\text{E}}_{\text{FB}}$  - Sets the system in the convert standby mode.
6.  $\overline{\text{E}}_{\text{FA}}$  - Used by the CPU (under user direction) to abort an analog to digital conversion command.
7.  $\overline{\text{EOC}}$  - When low - data from the ADC is valid.

#### 2. OUTPUTS:

1. Memory data bus - Tri-state drivers onto the memory data bus allow the ADC controller to disconnect from the DRAH data bus when not active.
2. Memory address bus - Tri-state drivers onto the memory address bus allow the ADC controller to disconnect from the DRAH address bus when not active.
3. ADC TRIGGER - Triggers ADC conversions when the ADC controller enables conversions.
4. PROC/ADC - Indicates to system circuitry whether the ADC controller or the CPU is accessing the DRAH.

Analog to digital conversions are activated as follows:

$\overline{E_{FB}}$  is pulled low setting the ADC controller in the convert-standby mode. Any subsequent analog input signal will enable conversions (via SIG. SET) - analog to digital conversions execute at a sampling rate determined by ADC TRIGGER. The CPU can abort a conversion via  $\overline{E_{FA}}$ .

$\overline{E_{DC}}$  is generated by the ADC after every conversion (when digitized data is valid) and used to latch the data and control the outputs of the address and data bus drivers - then to generate a DRAH write cycle (via the DRAH controller).  $\overline{E_{DC}}$  is also used to increment the address counters so that digitized data is written to sequential addresses in DRAH.

#### 3.4.9 Serial Input/Output

This unit has two Asynchronous Communications Interface Adaptors (ACIAs) interfaced to two RS-232 standard data drivers facilitating serial communication between the user terminal, the host computer and DASHA.

A baud-rate clock generator is provided and is programmable by the CPU.

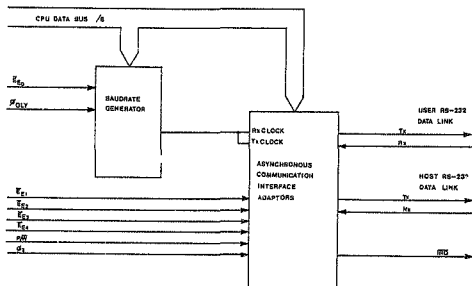


Figure J.13 Serial Input/Output Interface.

#### 1. INPUTS

1. CPU DATA BUS.
2.  $\phi_2$  - CPU phase two clock, enables data latches in the ACIAs.
3.  $R/\bar{W}$  - CPU read/write indicator.
4.  $POLY$  - 150 KHz clock used by the baudrate generator.
5. User RS-232 - serial data link with the user terminal.
6. Host RS-232 - serial data link with the host computer.
7.  $E_0$  through  $E_4$  - control lines used to enable the baudrate generator data latch and the various ACIA functions.

#### 2. OUTPUTS

1. CPU DATA BUS.
2. User RS-232.
3. Host RS-232.



### 3.4.10 Analog Signal Interface

This unit interfaces the analog to digital converter to the audio source. It consists of:

1. an first-stage input preamplifier of variable gain 0-14 dB,
2. a second stage amplifier of fixed gain of 27 dB,
3. signal detection circuitry, and
4. a bargraph peak level indicator.

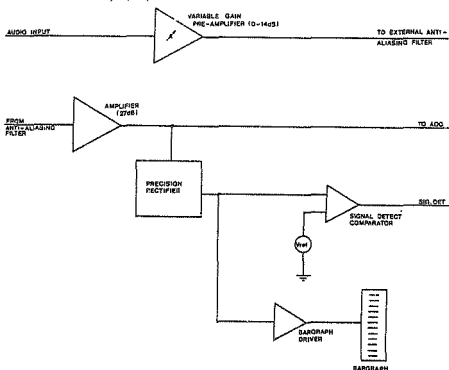


Figure 3.14: Analog Interface circuitry. The audio source connects to the first stage amplifier whose output must be connected via an external anti-aliasing filter to the input of the second stage amplifier.

The output of the second stage amplifier drives the ADC. This output is also rectified and fed into the bargraph driver and the signal detect circuitry.

The signal detect circuit consists of a comparator which generates SIC.DET when an input signal above 0.3 volts is detected.

The bargraph provides an indication of the peak level of the audio input to the ADC. The input signal should not exceed 75% of the maximum displacement of the bargraph - the analog signal to the ADC is then maintained within the correct limits.

## CHAPTER 4

### SYSTEM SOFTWARE

This chapter introduces the FORTH programming language. The design of the test, operating and maintenance software is flowcharted and presented in a Program Description Language (PDL) as high-level documentation.

#### 4.1 Introduction to FORTH

FORTH is best described as a programming-environment because it has all the functions of:

1. a high-level programming language,
2. an assembler,
3. an operating system,
4. a system development tool, and is often referred to as
5. a mental illness.

The FORTH environment can operate at any of these levels depending upon the needs of the user.

Standard implementations of FORTH provide a high-level programming language with structured programming constructs and a machine level FORTH-based assembler. These do not directly provide for number-crunching operations.

FORTH programs are stored as words in a vocabulary. A word (program) is executed by typing the word in at the keyboard of the user terminal. The FORTH vocabulary is expandable - built up by creating new words as combinations of other words already existing in the FORTH system vocabulary.

FORTH allows intimate programmer/processor interaction by including machine-level programming constructs in the standard FORTH vocabulary and the FORTH-based assembler which simulates that of the host processor. Procedure calls between high-level FORTH and low-level FORTH-assembler routines are implemented by passing parameters between the FORTH parameter stack and a storage area accessed by the accumulator during FORTH level routines.

High-level FORTH programs are typically entered as words in the vocabulary which describe their function. A program can be constructed of a string of words describing the action of that program.

For example - a process controller may regulate the temperature of a plant by controlling the flow of a coolant through a radiator system by:

```
BEGIN
    TESTEMP
    IFHOT
    TAPON
    IFCOOL
    TAPOFF
AGAIN
```

Where the words TESTEMP, IFHOT, TAPON etc. are all pre-defined FORTH words in the control systems application software. BEGIN and AGAIN are standard FORTH constructs which implement an infinite loop.

Good FORTH programming practice is to develop small simple words. These words are easily debugged using the FORTH interpreter, and are then compiled together as high-level words under a name describing the composite function of the procedures. In the above example the string of words could be compiled under one word - CONTROLTEMP. Subsequent execution of the program is by simply typing CONTROLTEMP at the user terminal.

FORTH facilitates an ideal development environment for small microprogrammed systems. The system code as well as compiled FORTH code is extremely compact. The entire FORTH system can reside in 4K of ROM and a typical application program in another 2K.

#### 4.1.1 The FORTH Interpreter and DASIA Software

FORTH inherently operates as a Command Line Interpreter (CLI) through the FORTH word INTERPRET, which picks out words from an input stream, finds their definitions in the FORTH dictionary, and executes them.

DASIA issues a sign-on message to the user terminal when reset, or when ESC is pressed during execution of system software. The message is in the form of a menu of user functions - prompting the user with the DASIA system functions. These words allow the execution of data capture and transfer - by typing the required word at the user terminal (see appendix D).

High-level use of the system is in response to the menu-functions. At a low level the user can use the FORTH interpreter and compiler to develop further system software. Flowchart 1 on page 4-7 illustrates a simplified working of the DASIA text interpreter under normal operation.

#### 4.2 Program Description Language

Flowcharts are provided as conceptual descriptions of the software functions. Associated with the flowcharts Program Description Language (PDL) programs are provided. The system code is listed in appendix E.

A PDL is useful for developing and documenting software. It provides a "structured-english" description of the software functions. The PDL used here obeys programming constructs based on those proposed by Young [19].

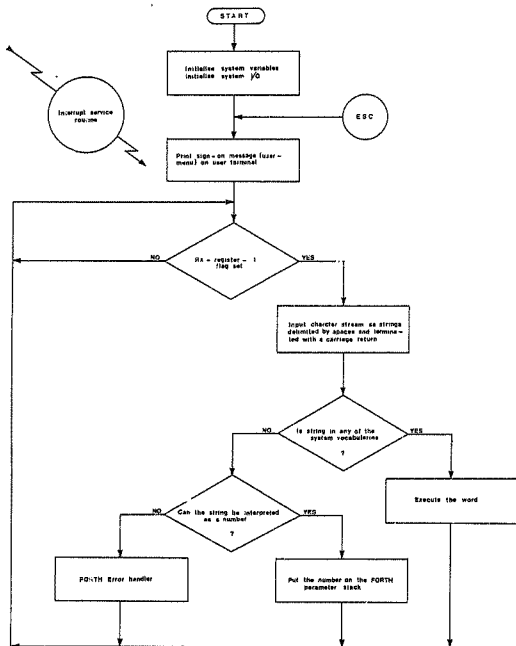
Translation from PDL to FORTH is simplified by implementing the FORTH parameter stack as a PDL data-structure. The PDL and its structures are dealt with in appendix D.

#### 4.3 Software Documentation

The system software is described on four functional levels:

1. System Bootstrap Routines.
2. Utility Routines.
3. Test Routines.
4. User Software.





FLOWCHART 1: The FORTH threaded Interpreter and DASIA operating system (US). START indicates a power-up or system reset.

#### 4.3.1 System Bootstrap

The bootstrap routine initializes the AI1 65 FORTH and configures it to match the OASHA hardware, it is written at assembler level and includes

1. initialisation of system variables,
2. initialisation of I/O mechanisms,
3. system dependant I/O routines, and
4. interrupt service routine.

4.3.1.1 System Variables - See PDL listing.

4.3.1.2 I/O Initialisation - See PDL listing.

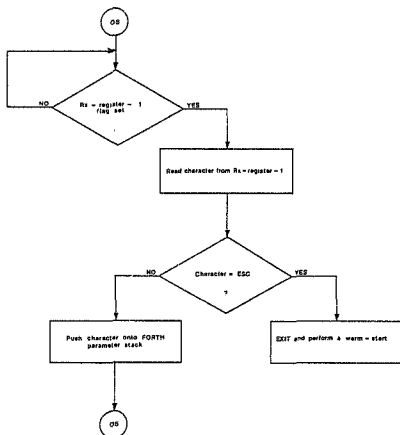
4.3.1.3 System Dependant I/O - The FORTH interpreter communicates with the user via four I/O routines which map the FORTH I/O into that of OASHA.

FORTH WORD	ASSEMBLER ROUTINE
KEY	INTERM
EXIT	OUTERM
?TERMINAL	TERCHCK
CR	CRLF

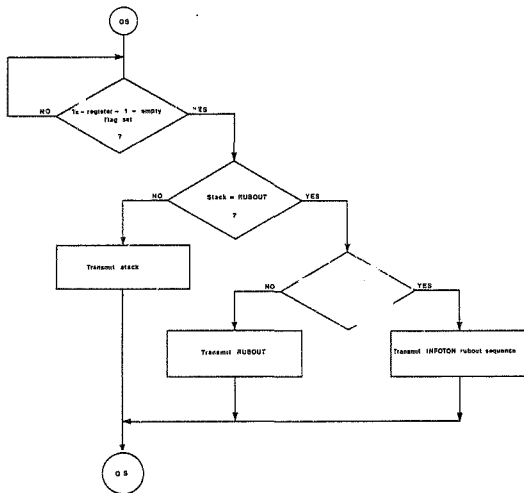
These routines are patched into the AI1 65 FORTH and point to the corresponding assembler routines indicated above.

1. KEY - Leaves the ASCII value of the next key depressed at the user terminal on the stack.
2. EXIT - Transmits the ASCII encoded character on top of the stack to the user terminal.
3. ?TERMINAL - Tests the user keyboard for actuation of any key and returns a true flag if a key is depressed.
4. CR - Transmits a carriage return and line feed to the user

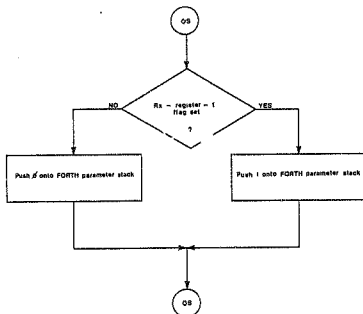
terminal.



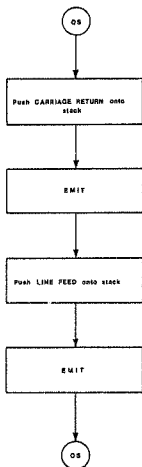
FLowChart 2: KEY - user terminal input routine  
(input-from-user-terminal).



FLOWCHART 3: EIT - user terminal output routine  
(output-to-user-terminal).



FLOWCHART 4: ?TERMINAL - user terminal activation detect routine  
(terminal-check).



FLOWCHART 5: CR - issues carriage return line feed to user terminal (carriage-return).

4.3.1.4 Interrupting the CPU - Is necessary when the CPU is not fast enough to receive a continuous string of characters from the host computer under program control. A 256 character circular queue is used to buffer the character stream.

The queue is written into by the interrupt service routine when

1. the CPU interrupt mask is cleared,
2. ACIA 2 (host serial link) IRQ is enabled, and
3. when the host transmits serial data to ACIA 2.

The queue is subsequently read under program control.

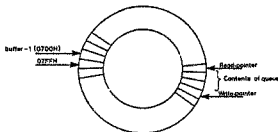
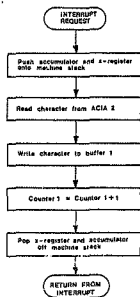


FIGURE 4.1: Circular queue used as a 256 character buffer on the host serial link.

The queue starts at machine address 0700H and uses 8 bit pointers - providing 256 locations folding back at address 07FFH.

- RPT1 - address of next datum to be read (read-pointer).
- WPT1 - address at which next datum will be written (write-pointer).
- CHT1 - number of data bytes in the queue.



FLOWCHART 3: Interrupt Service Routine.

#### 4.3.2 Utility Routines

Utility software constitutes the routines necessary for the implementation of high-level I/O functions:

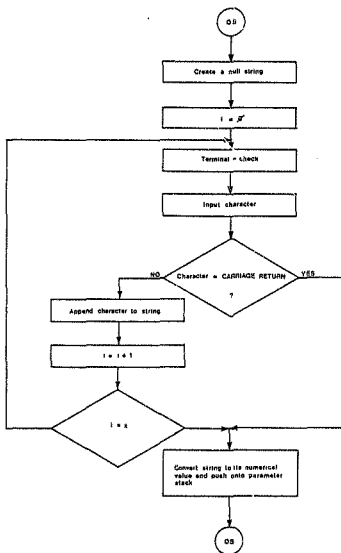
1. Input of ASCII coded numerics from the user terminal.
2. Dumping object code to an intelligent prom programmer.
3. Writing and reading 12 bit data to and from the DRAII.

The utility module contains the FORTH definitions listed in table 4.1.



FORTH dictionary entry	PDL procedure name
IN-1	in-x (x=1)
IN-2	in-x (x=2)
IN-3	in-x (x=3)
IN-4	in-x (x=4)
O/P	drain-write
I/P	drain-read
SETUP	setup-acfas
BAUDRATE	set-baudrate
STAT-1	status-1
STAT-2	status-2
OUTREN	out-remote
INREN	in-remote
ASC	byt-ascii
ASCOUT	word-ascii-out
DUMP	dump-object

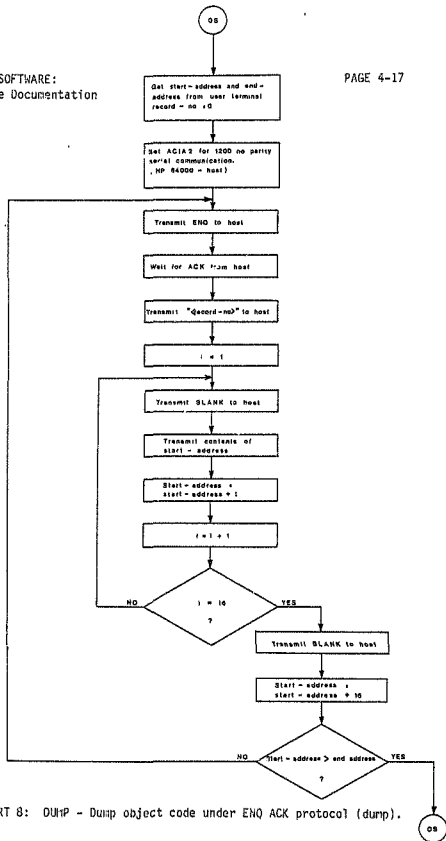
TABLE 4.1: Utility FORTH system words and their PDL procedure names.



FLOWCHART 7: Input of ASCII coded numerics from user terminal (in-x).

SYSTEM SOFTWARE:  
Software Documentation

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FLOWCHART 8: DUMP - Dump object code under ENQ ACK protocol (dump).

#### 4.3.3 Test Routines

The development of DASHA initially centered on the design of the dynamic RAM - extensive memory testing was required to verify the reliability of the DRAM and its controlling circuitry. The requirements of the memory test routines were based on the following:

1. Data is always written to the DRAM at sequential address locations by the ADC controller after each analog to digital conversion.
2. Data is always read from sequential address locations by the CPU.

The test proceeds as follows:

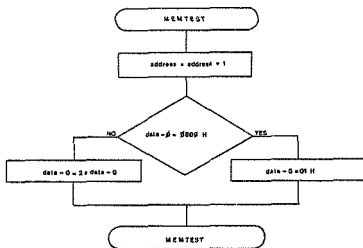
1. Data is written into the DRAM - setting sequential bit cells at sequential DRAM locations beginning with the first bit of location 0000H, ie:

001H is written to address 0000H  
002H is written to address 0001H  
004H is written to address 0002H  
etc.

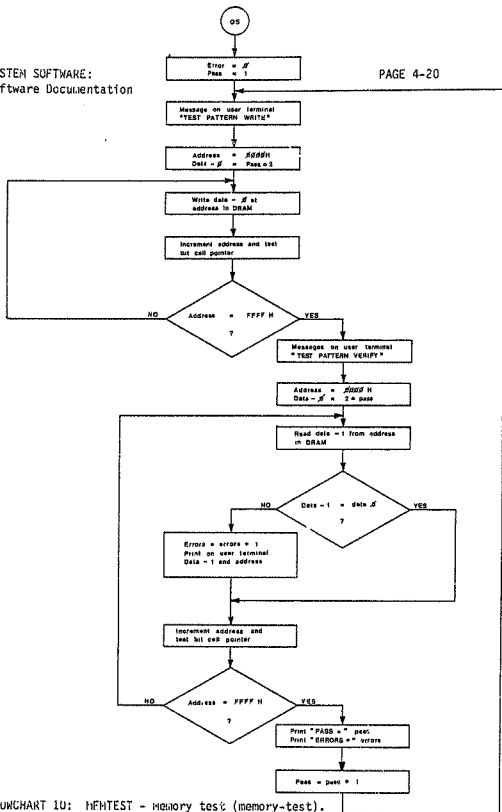
2. The data is read back and verified.
3. Step one is repeated, except that the next bit cell of every byte is set and the others reset, ie. the first operation sets the second bit cell of location one by writing 002H to address 0000H.
4. This is repeated until all sequential bit cell patterns have been tested and verified.
5. Appropriate messages convey the number of errors detected and the status of the test procedure.

↑ FORTH dictionary	↑ PDL procedure name	↑
↑ entry	↑	↑
↑-----↑	↑-----↑	↑
↑-----↑	↑-----↑	↑
↑ INC	↑ increment-address-	↑
↑	↑ and-bit-cell-	↑
↑	↑ pointer	↑
↑ T1	↑ write-test-pattern	↑
↑ T2	↑ verify-test-	↑
↑	↑ pattern	↑
↑ MEMTEST	↑ memory-test	↑

TABLE 4.2: Test FORTH system words and their PDL procedure names.



FLOWCHART 9: INC - Memory test  
(increment-and-test-bit-cell-pointer).



FLOWCHART 10: hFTEST - Memory test (memory-test).

#### 4.3.4 User Routines

User software includes all those routines necessary to execute analog to digital conversions and then transmit the data to the host computer under program control. The main routines include:

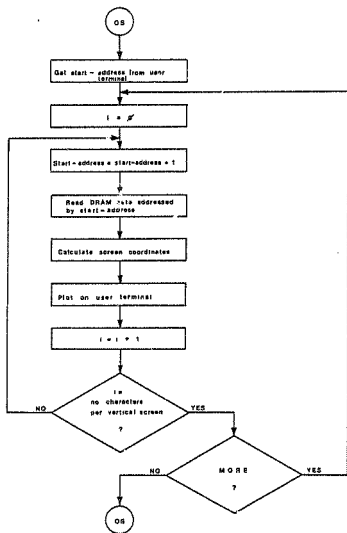
1. Terminal simulation - DASHA is used as a dumb terminal to allow the user to communicate directly with the host computer.
2. Analog to digital conversion is controlled by three routines:
  1. Initialisation of the sampling frequency.
  2. Setting the system into a convert-standby mode - subsequent analog input triggers the ADC.
  3. Aborting the conversion.
3. Graphically examining the acquired data.
4. Transmission of digitized data to the host computer.

I FORTH dictionary	I PUL procedure name	I
I entry	I	I
I-----I	I-----I	I
I-----I	I-----I	I
I TERSIM	I terminal-simulation	I
I COMP	I convert-twelve-	I
I	I sixteen-bit-	I
I	I two's-complement	I
I P1	I calculate-plot-	I
I	I position	I
I P2	I plot-on-screen	I
I PLUT	I rough-plot	I
I SAMP-FREQ	I set-sampling-	I
I	I frequency	I
I INIT-SAMP	I initialize-	I
I	I conversions	I
I RESET-SAMP	I abort-conversions	I
I UP1	I prompt-host	I
I UP2	I wait-for-prompt	I
I UPLOAD	I upload-to-host	I
I-----I	I-----I	I

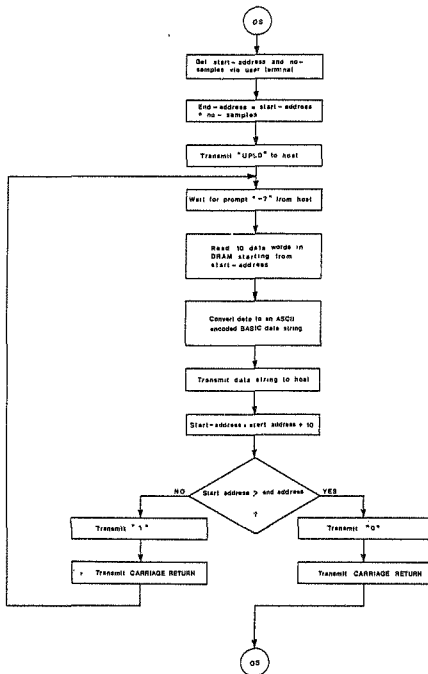
TABLE 4.3: User FORTH system words and their PUL  
Procedure names.







FLOWCHART 12: PLUT - rough plot on user terminal (rough-plot).



FLOWCHART 13: UPLOAD - formatted data to host computer (upload).

#### 4.4 PUL Implementation of DASHA Application Software

##### SYSTEM DASHA Application Software

```
TYPE data-pointer: 16 bit;  
   address-pointer: 16 bit;  
   data : 16 bit;  
   address: 16 bit;  
   stack: 16 bit;  
  
VAR (d0: data-pointer) := 0000H;  
    (d1: data-pointer) := 0000H;  
    (errors: data-pointer) := 0000H;  
    (pass: data-pointer) := 0001H;  
    (no-samples: data-pointer) := 0014H;  
    (maximum: data-pointer) := 0800H;  
    (minimum: data-pointer) := F800H;  
    (no-columns: data-pointer) := 0041H;  
    (position: data-pointer) := 0000H;  
    (axis: data-pointer) := 0000H;  
    (sample-clock: data-pointer) := 0000H;  
    (baud-clock: data-pointer) := 00D5H;  
    (stat-1: data-pointer) := 0000H;  
    (stat-2: data-pointer) := 0000H;  
    (dat-1: data-pointer) := 0000H;  
    (dat-2: data-pointer) := 0000H;  
    (counter-1: data-pointer) := 0000H;  
    (counter-2: data-pointer) := 0000H;  
    (read-pointer-1: data-pointer) := 0000H;  
    (write-pointer-1: data-pointer) := 0000H;  
    (escape-flag: data-pointer) := 0000H;  
    (address-from: address-pointer) := 0000H;  
    (address-to: address-pointer) := 0000H;  
  
CONST buffer-1 : address;  
       buffer-2 : address;  
       read-data-register: data-pointer;  
       write-data-register: data-pointer;  
       address-register: address-pointer;  
       control-register: data-pointer;
```

SYSTEM SOFTWARE:  
PUL listing

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```
PROCEDURE input-output-initialisation
[*****]
[initialises CPU, sets baudrate generator at 2400]
[baud default, initialises ACIA's for 7 character]
[half-clock rate, no-parity check - communication]
```

```
BEGIN
    initialise machine stack to 00FFH
    clear decimal mode
    set interrupt mask
    baudclock := 00D4H
    stat-1 := stat-2 := 00FFH
    stat-1 := stat-2 := 0002H
```

END

```
PROCEDURE input-from-user-terminal
[*****]
OUTPUTS: stack
```

```
BEGIN
    REPEAT
        do nothing
    UNTIL [rx-register-1 flag set]
    read character from rx-register-1
    IF [character = ESC]
    THEN
        exit and perform a warm start
    ELSE
        stack := character
    ENDIF
```

END

PROCEDURE output-to-user-terminal

[\*\*\*\*\*]

INPUTS: stack

```
BEGIN
  REPEAT
    do nothing
  UNTIL [tx-register-1 empty flag set]
  IF [stack = RUBOUT]
  THEN
    IF [infoton flag is set]
    THEN
      send infoton rubout sequence
    ELSE
      send RUBOUT
    ENDIF
  ELSE
    send stack
  ENDIF
END
```

PROCEDURE terminal-check

[\*\*\*\*\*]

[Checks for actuation of any key at the user ]  
[terminal. If key has been depressed returns a ]  
[TRUE flag on the FORTH parameter stack. ]

OUTPUTS: stack

```
BEGIN
  IF [rx-register-1 flag set]
  THEN
    stack := 1
  ELSE
    stack := 0
  ENDIF
END
```

PROCEDURE carriage-return

[\*\*\*\*\*]

[issues a carriage return - line feed to the user]  
[terminal. ]

```
BEGIN
  stack := CARRIAGE-RETURN
  output-to-user-terminal
  stack := LINE-FEED
  output-to-user-terminal
END
```

```
PROCEDURE interrupt-service
[*****]
[On the condition that: ]
[ 1. CPU interrupts are enabled, ]
[ 2. ACIA-2 interrupt is enabled, and ]
[ 3. ACIA-2 receives a character ]
[the flow of program execution is halted, and ]
[this routine writes the data in rx-register-2 to]
[buffer-2. ]
```

```
BEGIN
    push accumulator onto machine stack
    push x-register onto machine stack
    read character from rx-register-2
    (U7UWH + write-pointer) := character
    counter-1 := counter-1 + 1
    pull x-register from machine stack
    pull accumulator from machine stack
    return from interrupt
```

END

SYSTEM SOFTWARE:  
FOL listing

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MODULE utility

```
DEFINE in-1; in-2; in-3; in-4;  
      dram-write; dram-read;  
      byte-ascii; word-ascii-out;  
      dump;
```

```
PROCEDURE in-x  
[*****]  
  Reads x ascii encoded characters from the user ]  
  (terminal and stores them as a string in a FORTH ]  
  [storage area called P.W. After x characters have]   
  [been input, or the input stream is terminated ]  
  [with a CARRIAGE-RETURN, the string is converted ]  
  [to its numerical value in the current number ]  
  [base and the value is placed on the FORTH ]  
  [parameter stack. ]
```

OUTPUTS: stack(1)

```
BEGIN  
  create a null string called string  
  WHILE i NOT = x DO  
    terminal-check  
    input-from-user-terminal  
    IF (stack NOT= CARRIAGE-RETURN)  
    THEN  
      append stack to string  
    ELSE  
      i := x  
    ENDIF  
  END  
  convert string to numeric  
  stack := numeric  
END
```



SYSTEM SOFTWARE:  
PDL listing

PAGE 4-30

MODULE utility

DEFINE in-1; in-2; in-3; in-4;  
dram-write; dram-read;  
byte-ascii; word-ascii-out;  
dump;

PROCEDURE in-x

[\*\*\*\*\*]

[Reads x ascii encoded characters from the user ]  
[terminal and stores them as a string in a FORTH ]  
[storage area called PAD. After x characters have ]  
[been input, or the input stream is terminated ]  
[with a CARRIAGE-RETURN, the string is converted ]  
[to its numerical value in the current number ]  
[base and the value is placed on the FORTH ]  
[parameter stack. ]

OUTPUTS: stack(1)

BEGIN

create a null string; called string

WHILE i NOT = x DO

terminal-check

input-from-user-terminal

IF [stack NOT= CARRIAGE-RETURN]

THEN

append stack to string

ELSE

i := x

ENDIF

END

convert string to numeric

stack := numeric

END

```
PROCEDURE dram-write
[*****]
[by writing data, address and control information]
[to the write-data-register, address-register and]
[the control-register, a dynamic RAM write cycle ]
[is executed by the DRAM controller hardware. ]
```

INPUTS: stack(2)

```
BEGIN
  (write-data-register) := stack
  (address-register) := stack
  (control-register) := 3
```

END

```
PROCEDURE dram-read
[*****]
[by writing address and control information to ]
[the address-register and the control-register ]
[the DRAM controller hardware executes a DRAM ]
[read cycle. ]
```

INPUTS: stack(1)

OUTPUTS: stack(1)

```
BEGIN
  (address-register) := stack
  (control-register) := 2
  stack := (read-data-register)
```

END

```
PROGRAM dump
[*****]
[Allows dumping of object code from CPU RAM over ]
[ a serial data link to an intelligent prom ]
[ programmer under an ENQ ACK protocol. The object ]
[ is converted to ascii and formatted as an object ]
[ file generated on the HP 64000 system. ]
```

INPUTS: user terminal prompted

```
PROCEDURE setup-acias
[*****]
[Sets up acias for 1200, no-parity serial ]
[ communication with the HP64000. ]
```

```
BEGIN
  baudclock := A8H
  stat-1 := stat-2 := 02H
```

END

```
PROCEDURE out-remote
[*****]
INPUTS: stack(1)

BEGIN
  REPEAT
    do nothing
  UNTIL [Tx-register-2-empty flag set]
  (data-2) := stack
END
```

```
PROCEDURE in-remote
[*****]
OUTPUTS: accumulator
```

```
BEGIN
  REPEAT
    do nothing
  UNTIL [Rx-register-2 flag set]
  accumulator := (data-2)
END
```

```
PROCEDURE ascii
[*****]
INPUTS: accumulator
OUTPUTS: accumulator
```

```
BEGIN
  IF [accumulator < 0AH]
  THEN
    accumulator := accumulator + 30H
  ELSE
    accumulator := accumulator + 36H
  ENDIF
END
```

SYSTEM SOFTWARE:  
PDL listing

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PROCEDURE word-ascii-out  
[\*\*\*\*\*]  
INPUTS: stack(1)

BEGIN  
    dupstack  
    stack := stack AND FOH  
    stack := stack / 10H  
    ascii  
    out-remote  
    stack := stack AND OFH  
    ascii  
    out-remote  
END

END MODULE utility

MODULE test

DEFINE increment-address-and-test-bit-cell-pointer;  
    write-test-pattern;  
    verify-test-pattern;  
    memory-test;

PROGRAM memory-test  
[\*\*\*\*\*]  
[A walking bit memory test routine is executed ]  
[on the Dynamic RAM. The test verifies correct ]  
[operation of the DRAM under sequential read and ]  
[write conditions and issues the appropriate ]  
[messages to the user terminal. ]

INPUTS: user terminal prompted  
OUTPUTS: test status information

PROCEDURE increment-address-and-bit-cell-pointer  
[\*\*\*\*\*]

BEGIN  
    adr0 := adr0 + 1  
    IF [d0=000H]  
    THEN  
        d0 := 1  
    ELSE  
        d0 := d0 + 2  
    END  
END

PROCEDURE write-test-pattern  
[\*\*\*\*\*]

BEGIN  
    print "TEST PATTERN WRITE"  
    adr0 := 0  
    REPEAT  
        stack := adr0  
        stack := d0  
        dram-write  
        increment-address-and-bit-cell-pointer  
    UNTIL [adr0 = FFFFH]  
END

```
PROCEDURE verify-test-pattern
[*****]
BEGIN
  adr0 := 0
  REPEAT
    stack := adr0
    dram-read
    d1 := stack
    IF [d0=d1]
      THEN
        increment-address-and-bit-cell-pointer
      ELSE
        errors := errors + 1
        PRINT d0
        PRINT adr0
        increment-address-and-bit-cell-pointer
      END
  UNTIL [adr0=FFFFH]
  PRINT "PASS" pass "COMPLETE" errors "ERROR:"
END
```

```
BEGIN
  errors := 0
  pass := 1
  d1 := 1
  adr0 := 0
  REPEAT
    d0 := d1
    write-test-pattern
    d0 := d1
    verify-test-pattern
    d1 := 2*d1
    pass := pass + 1
  UNTIL [d1=1000H]
END

END MODULE test
```

```
MODULE user
[*****]
DEFINE  convert-twelve-to-sixteen-bit-two's-complement;
        calculate-plot-position;
        plot-point-on-screen;
        rough-plot;

PROGRAM rough-plot
[*****]
[ A rough plot of the data in DRAW is output on   ]
[ the user terminal.                               ]

PROCEDURE convert-twelve-to-sixteen-bit-two's-complement
[*****]
INPUTS: stack(1)
OUTPUTS: stack(1)

BEGIN
    dupstack
    dU := stack AND 800H
    IF {dU=800H}
    THEN
        stack := -((stack XOR FFFFH) + 1)
    END
END

PROCEDURE plot-point-on-screen
[*****]
BEGIN
    FOR i := 1 TO cols DO
        CASE i OF
            position: PRINT "**"
            axis: PRINT "I"
        ELSE
            PRINT " "
        END
    END
END
```

```
PROCEDURE calculate-plot-position
[*****]
BEGIN
  FOR i := 0 TO no-samples DO
    stack := adr0 + i
    dram-read
    convert-twelve-to-sixteen-bit-two's-complement
    d0 := stack
    position := ((d0 - (min-value)) * (column-no))
              / ((max-value) - (min-value))
    axis := ((0 - (min-value)) * (column-no))
           / ((max-value) - (min-value))
    plot-point-on-screen
  END
END

BEGIN
  PRINT "START ADDRESS"
  in-4
  adr0 := stack
  REPEAT
    calculate-plot-position
    adr0 := adr0 + (no-samples)
    PRINT "INCR"
    in-1
  UNTIL [stack := "N"]
END
```



```
PROGRAM terminal-simulation
[*****]
[The DASMA system is made to look transparent, ]
[allowing direct communication between the user ]
[terminal and the host computer. Exit from this ]
[program is by typing control-A, control-E at the ]
[user terminal]. ]

BEGIN
  enable CPU and ACIA 2 interrupts
  IF [counter-1 NOT= 0]
  THEN
    IF [tx-register-1-empty flag set]
    THEN
      stack := (buffer-1 + read-pointer)
      (data-1) := stack
      counter-1 := counter-1 - 1
      read-pointer := read-pointer + 1
    ENDIF
  ENDIF
  IF [rx-register-1 flag set]
  THEN
    stack := (data-1)
    (buffer-2) := stack
    counter-2 := counter-2 + 1
  ENDIF
  IF [counter-2 NOT= 0]
  THEN
    IF [tx-register-2-empty flag set]
    THEN
      IF [escape-flag = 1]
      THEN
        stack := (buffer-2)
        counter-2 := counter-2 - 1
        IF [stack = control-E]
        THEN
          escape-flag := escape-flag - 1
        ELSE
          (data-2) := control-A
          escape-flag := escape-flag + 1
        ENDIF
      ELSE
        stack := (buffer-2)
        counter-2 := counter-2 - 1
        IF [stack = control-A]
        THEN
          escape-flag := escape-flag - 1
        ELSE
          (data-2) := stack
        ENDIF
      ENDIF
    ENDIF
  ENDIF
```

```
                ENDIF
            ENDIF
        ENDIF
    ENDIF
UNTIL [escape-flag = 0]
END
PROGRAM upload
[*****]
{This routine communicates directly with an OEPS }
{routine implemented on the Data General ECLIPSE }
{in BASIC. OEPS must be waiting for              }
{response to its CODE ? prompt, the response is   }
{UPLU. The routine commences to upload user      }
{specified number of data bytes from the DRA1    }
{to a BASIC data file specified on the ECLIPSE   }
{by the OEPS routine FILE.                       }

PROCEDURE to-host
[*****]
INPUTS: accumulator

BEGIN
    REPEAT
        do nothing
    UNTIL [TX-register-2-empty flag set]
        (data-2) := accumulator
    END

PROCEDURE read-host
[*****]
OUTPUTS: accumulator

BEGIN
    accumulator := (read-pointer + buffer-1)
    counter-1 := counter-1 + 1
    read-pointer-1 := read-pointer-1 + 1
END

PROCEDURE transmit
[*****]
INPUTS: stack(1)

BEGIN
    accumulator := stack
    to-host
END
```

SYSTEM SOFTWARE:  
PDL listing

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PROCEDURE ascii-adjust-transmit  
[\*\*\*\*\*]  
[Converts a two's complement decimal number to     ]  
[its ascii value and transmits it to the host     ]

INPUTS: stack(1)

BEGIN  
    dupstack  
    IF [stack < 0]  
    THEN  
        stack := "-"  
        transmit  
    ENDIF  
    stack := stack /MOD 1000  
    stack := stack + 48  
    transmit  
    stack := stack /MOD 100  
    stack := stack + 48  
    transmit  
    stack := stack /MOD 10  
    stack := stack + 48  
    transmit  
END

PROCEDURE prompt-to-host  
[\*\*\*\*\*]

BEGIN  
    stack := "U"  
    transmit  
    stack := "P"  
    transmit  
    stack := "L"  
    transmit  
    stack := "D"  
    transmit  
END

```
PROCEDURE wait-for-host-prompt  
[*****]  
BEGIN  
  escape-flag := 2  
  REPEAT  
    IF [counter-1 NOT= 0]  
      THEN  
        IF [escape-flag NOT= 1]  
          THEN  
            read-host  
            IF [stack = "j]  
              THEN  
                escape-flag := escape-flag - 1  
              ELSE  
                escape-flag := escape-flag + 1  
              ENDIF  
            ELSE  
              read-host  
              IF [stack = "?"]  
                THEN  
                  escape-flag := escape-flag - 1  
                ENDIF  
              ENDIF  
            ENDIF  
          UNTIL [escape-flag = 0]  
        END
```

```
BEGIN
  print "HEX STARTING ADDRESS"
  in-4
  adr0 := stack
  print "HEX NUMBER OF SAMPLES"
  in-4
  adr1 := adr0 + stack
  send-prompt-to-host
  REPEAT
    wait-for-host-prompt
    FOR i := 0 TO 9 DO
      stack := adr0
      dram-read
      ascii-adjust-transmit
      adr0 := adr0 + 1
      stack := ","
      transmit
    END
    IF [adr0 > adr1]
      THEN
        stack := "1"
        transmit
        stack := "carriage-return"
        transmit
        stack := "0"
      ELSE
        stack := "0"
        transmit
        stack := "carriage-return"
        transmit
        stack := "1"
      ENDF
    UNTIL [stack = 1]
  terminal-simulation
END
```

## CHAPTER 5

### TONE ANALYSIS AND ASSESSMENT

The application of Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) techniques to the analysis of selected musical tones and an assessment of the results thereof is presented in this chapter.

### 5.1 Review of the Analysis Requirements

The state of current research in music perception, analysis and synthesis is outlined in chapter two.

Frequency domain representations of musical tones are seen to provide insight into the relationship between the harmonic evolution of musical tones and the resultant timbral effects.

The literature reveals two important factors:

1. Natural instrument tones exhibit time varying partial structures which to be accurately represented must be observed at intervals not greater than 3ms.
2. The ear takes a finite time to process these sounds. This time is equivalent to an integration time of about 50ms.

The 3ms perturbations in the musical tones are thus considered unimportant in the perception of the tones. To graphically represent the tone-description parameters, with the intention of subsequently using these parameters to synthesize musical tone, an average value over every 50ms time interval is sufficient. Grey [10] has shown that a line-segment approximation to the temporal and harmonic variations of the original waveform is sufficient for synthesizing data reduced tones.

Graphical representations of each tone are presented in four different forms:

1. Amplitude-time plot - showing the envelope of the complete waveform analysed (amplitude vs time).
2. Time-Window - showing a steady state portion of the waveform (amplitude vs time).
3. Amplitude-time-spectrum plot - showing the time evolution of the amplitude spectrum of the musical tone (amplitude vs frequency vs time).
4. Harmonic-profile - showing the temporal evolution of the amplitude of each partial tone at nearly integral multiples of the fundamental frequency (amplitude vs time vs frequency).

Note that the names appearing under each graphic plot refer to the

file in which the data was originally stored on the host computer. Only the instrument type is of relevance.

## 5.2 Data Capture

The original tones were played by musicians who were asked to play short duration tones in the region of A above middle-C (approx. 440 Hz). The exact pitch of the tone was unimportant as the analysis can determine the harmonic relationships relative to the fundamental frequency (and thus the pitch). The analysis provided general harmonic structures for each instrument rather than for each note of an instrument.

Short duration tones, which show strong attack and decay characteristics and a small steady state region, were sufficient for the analysis.

The tones were recorded on a Nagra-IV tape recorder using BASF or SCOTCH low noise tape. Acoustic instruments were recorded in the department's acoustic laboratory using Bruel and Kjaer capacitor microphones. The electric and electro-acoustic piano were recorded directly via their line outputs.

The sounds were digitized and transferred to BASIC data files on the ECLIPSE using DASHA.

### 5.2.1 Digitization Conditions

Sampling frequencies and Fourier record lengths were determined from the characteristics of the tone under analysis. For an N-point transform of a waveform of maximum frequency  $X_w$  sampled at  $F_s$  Hz, the time duration of each window of analysis was  $T=N/F_s$  seconds. The frequency resolution of the resultant spectrum is  $1/T$  Hz.

It was assumed that a waveform contained a maximum of fifteen dominant harmonics. Therefore the sampling frequency was based on the Nyquist rate of the fifteenth harmonic of the original waveform, ie  $2 \times (15 \times X_w)$ . Analysis window lengths were chosen according to these resolution requirements. A Kron-Hite second order low-pass filter was used to remove components above the Nyquist frequency from the original tone.



### 5.3 Signal Analysis

The software used in the following analysis is documented in appendix C. The relevant macros which performed the spectral analysis and provided graphical plots were:

1. MACSTPLOT - which plots a selected portion of the time waveform.
2. MACSSPEC - which applies a fourier analysis to successive windows (of N points length) of the time waveform.
3. MACSSPLOT - which plots a three-dimensional plot of the amplitude-time-spectrum computed by MACSSPEC.
4. MACSHAR - which uses a cepstrum technique to determine the pitch-period of the time waveform (from the Fourier spectra resulting from MACSSPEC) and using the pitch-period information calculates the amplitude variation of each partial frequency of the time waveform.
5. MACSHPLUT - which plots a three-dimensional harmonic spectrum of the data computed by MACSHAR.

#### 5.4 Observations and Conclusions

##### 5.4.1 Clarinet

The temporal evolution shown in the amplitude-time plot exhibited the characteristic slow attack of the clarinet waveform. This is a manifestation of the mechanical construction of the instrument and is attributed to the slow build up of the air column in the acoustic tube when excited by air blown past the reed.

The fundamental component showed the highest energy content. explains the bright clear sound of the instrument. . amplitude-time-spectrum plot and the harmonic profile showed a suppression of the even harmonics. This is characteristic of a pipe closed at one end (appendix J).

The steady state portion of the waveform existed only when the excitation was prolonged, and showed steady partial amplitudes until the excitation was removed. The decay showed constant partial amplitudes and a slowly decreasing fundamental amplitude relative to these partials. Then a rapid decrease in all partial activity - the higher frequency partials decay more rapidly than the lower frequency partials.

##### 5.4.2 Acoustic Guitar

The guitar waveform was that of a plucked string and showed a faster attack than the clarinet. The peak amplitude was reached in about eight cycles of the excitation waveform. The excitation was in the form of an impulse and not prolonged like that of the clarinet. The guitar therefore did not exhibit a steady state region.

The partial structure depended on the intensity of the string being plucked, and showed energy at all partial frequencies at near-integer multiples of the fundamental.

Three breakpoints existed in the decay portion of the harmonic profile. Immediately following the attack, a rapid decrease in low partial energy was seen. The partials decayed slowly, the fundamental decaying faster than the other partials. Then a rapid

decrease in all harmonic activity - the higher frequency partials decayed more rapidly than the low frequency partials.

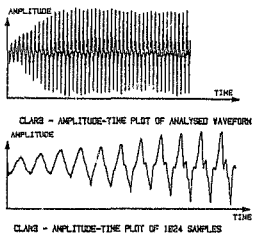


Figure 5.1: Clarinet amplitude-time waveforms.

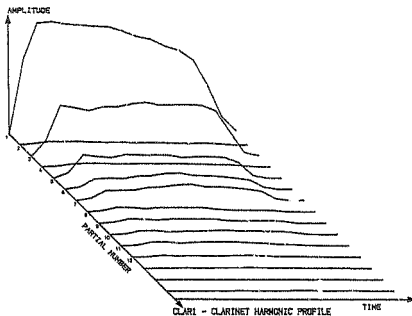
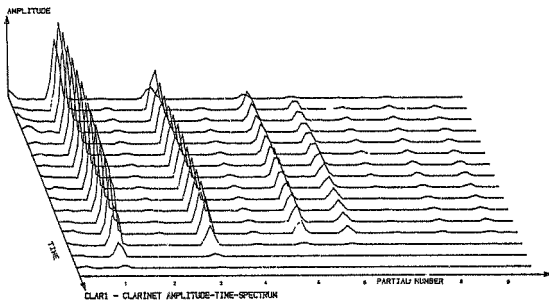


Figure 5.2: Clarinet amplitude-time spectrum and harmonic profile.

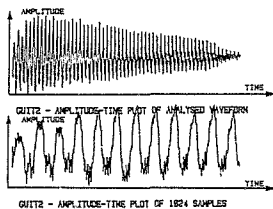


Figure 5.3: Acoustic guitar amplitude-time waveforms.

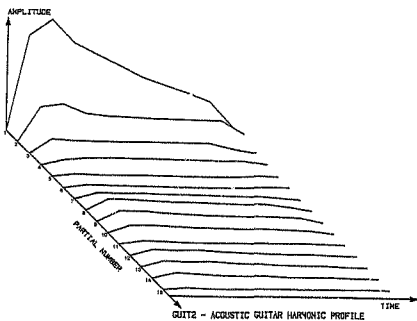
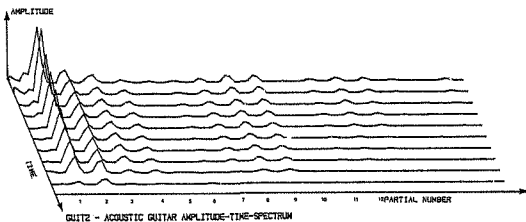


Figure 5.4: Acoustic guitar amplitude-time spectrum and harmonic profile.

#### 5.4.3 Acoustic piano

The piano being a struck string instrument, like the guitar exhibited a rapid temporal attack.

The harmonic evolution of the piano was the most complex of all the tones analysed. It showed activity at all partial frequencies of near-integer multiples of the fundamental frequency. The second harmonic was particularly strong, being larger than the fundamental in certain cases. This was more pronounced for low frequencies than for higher frequencies, and can be attributed to the decreased acoustical coupling between the soundboard and the air in the low-frequency range - due to the relatively small acoustical-radiation resistance. The acoustical-radiation resistance decreases as the ratio of the dimensions of the vibrating surface to the wavelength decreases.

The piano showed no steady state harmonic region, and the relative energies in the partials decreased more rapidly with increasing partial frequency.

An examination of the amplitude-time-spectrum plot of PIANO1 showed that at onset a wide spread of inharmonic partial frequencies existed. These account for the percussive nature of a piano sound.

#### 5.4.4 Electric Piano

This instrument provided useful reference information. The waveforms were electronically generated, and this manifested itself in the results of the analysis.

The regularity of the evolution and cessation of the harmonics of the electric piano contrasted with those of the natural instruments.

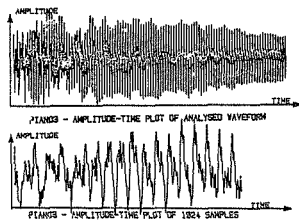


Figure 5.5: Acoustic piano, amplitude-time waveforms.



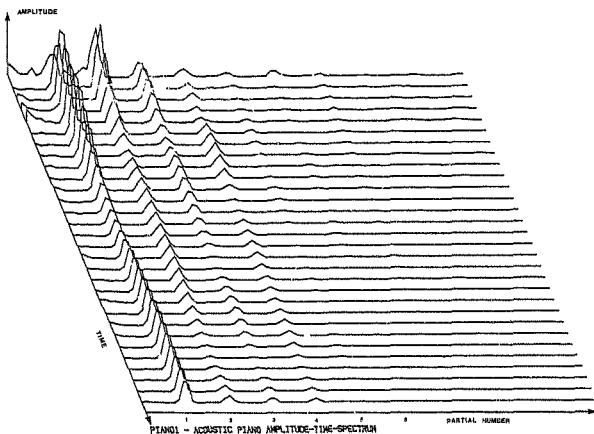


Figure 5.6: Acoustic piano, amplitude-time spectrum.

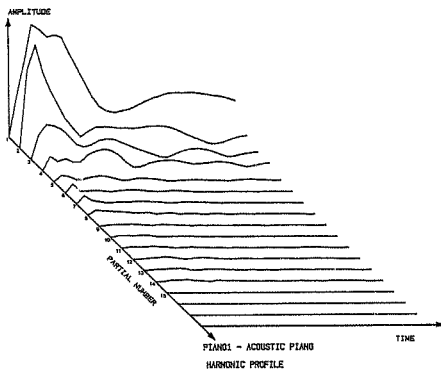


Figure 5.7: Acoustic piano, harmonic profile.

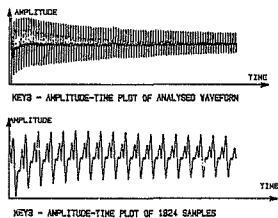


Figure 5.8: Electric piano, amplitude-time waveforms.

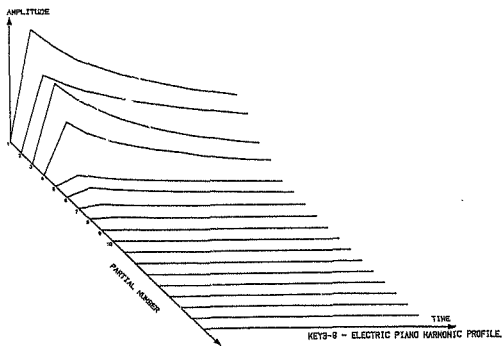
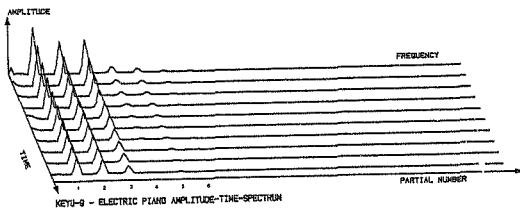


Figure 5.9: Electric piano, amplitude-time spectrum and harmonic profile.

## CHAPTER 6

### PROJECT OVERVIEW

The evolution of the musical tone analysis system and the results of some tone analyses have been documented in the preceding text. This chapter evaluates the musical tone analysis environment which has been commissioned. Suggestions for future work in the field of music analysis and synthesis are also included.

### 6.1 The Future of Electronic Music

The final evaluation of the analysis environment will depend on its ability to determine the tone-description parameters to drive a synthesis system, and the accuracy with which these parameters can synthesize natural timbres.

Hopefully the university will continue with projects which will "close the loop". The references should provide an adequate starting point for any person interested in pursuing this type of research. It is unfortunate, however, that our present industry does not encourage research in music analysis and synthesis. At present much attention is being paid to this subject in Japan, Britain and America. But even in these countries, funding for music research is supplied by large commercial corporations - government funding, such as that for military research, is not generally available. Under these conditions this research will rely on individual interest.

### 6.2 Suggestions for Future Work

DASMA provides an open-ended development and evaluation environment for digital analysis of musical tones. The researcher can make great use of DASMA in its prototype form. There are numerous improvements which could be made to both the hardware and the software. DASMA, however, functions adequately, and it is felt that more important work would be the evaluation of analysis software and the development of a synthesis system.

#### 6.2.1 Hardware

The prototype hardware has proved functionally adequate. No memory errors were detected over the three month evaluation period. When using the Hagra IV as the audio signal source, the audio interface supplied too much gain, and a Boss two channel mixer was used to attenuate the input signal. The audio input can be driven directly by a microphone.

## Suggestions for Future Work

Further improvements could be made by incorporating VLSI circuitry in the CPU/URAM interface to replace the latching circuitry at CPU addresses 9FF0H thru 9FF7H.

#### 6.2.2 System Software

This software allow the user a large degree of control over the sampling and subsequent transfer of data. Cosmetic improvements could be made to enhance the user friendliness of the command line interpreter.

#### 6.2.3 Analysis Software

The interface with the OEPS environment provides access to much signal processing software which, as is the nature of OEPS, will be continually upgraded. DASIM, in effect, can benefit from these software revisions, and thus with minimum effort can be kept up to date. The analysis programs implemented here merely indicate the application of Fourier transform based spectral analysis techniques to musical tone analysis. The analysis software is the area which shows greatest potential for further investigation.

Analysis software evaluation would be most effective if a synthesis system existed for evaluating the parameters obtained from the analysis. Such a system could finally lead to the development of a stand-alone system performing the analysis and synthesis in real-time.

#### 6.2.4 Synthesis Hardware

Additive synthesis has the advantage that only sinewave oscillators with amplitude controlling functions are required to generate the musical timbres; thus a synthesis system can be implemented using limited special purpose hardware. Alles [20] describes an oscillator useful for additive or frequency-modulation synthesis. The oscillator uses a 16-bit arithmetic unit controlled by a 4 mhz 2-80 microprocessor. It is time-division-multiplexed to provide the function of 32 sinewave oscillators - each with frequency and amplitude modulation capabilities. Each sampled-data sinewave partial has a sampling rate of 32 kHz.

This type of hardware would be invaluable for implementing additive synthesis using the tone-description parameters obtained from DASHA.

#### 6.2.5 A Real-Time System

A major problem of current electronic music synthesizers is the musician/machine interface. Popular synthesizers use a conventional keyboard for this purpose. Attempts to extend the interface to other popular instruments, such as the guitar, have had only limited success due mainly to the difficulty in detecting the pitch of the played notes. The most successful guitar synthesizer uses multiple pick-ups, each pick-up covering a small range of the instrument's frequency spectrum. This, however, requires the use of a specially adapted guitar.

More advanced real-time pitch detection algorithms such as a bit-slice computation or a hardware cepstrum analysis could greatly extend the musician/machine interface by allowing any electric or electro-acoustic instrument to be used as the pitch source. The pitch is calculated in real time and the required musical tone is then synthesized.

The analysis and synthesis techniques evaluated through the use of DASHA could lead to the construction of a dedicated music synthesis system, which could prove to be of commercial value for use in music and film recording studios.



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APPENDIX A  
DASHA USERS MANUAL

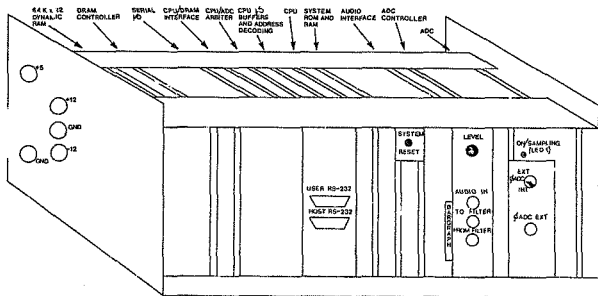


Figure A.1: Illustration of DAS-1A.

## A.1 Setting the System up

### A.1.1 Power Supplies

Connect a 5v 3-amp regulated supply and a +12v 0 -12v 1-amp regulated supply as indicated in figure A.1.

### A.1.2 Data Links

The system reset or power-up sets the data link protocol to a default baudrate of 2400 baud with 7-bit characters and one stop bit.

1. Connect a terminal to the user RS-232 link via a null-modem RS-232 connector, set to match the above protocol.
2. Connect a null-modem RS-232 connector to the host RS-232 link. If the ECLIPSE is being used as the host, this is identical to any RS-232 connector on any of the terminals.

### A.2 Power-Up

On power-up LED 1 lights up and DASHA responds with a menu of user functions and the the FORTH prompt - OK. The FORTH interpreter will then respond to any user input.

1. If LED 1 is lit but there is no response at the user terminal, check the data link protocol of the terminal.
2. If the host is not the ECLIPSE, or the baudrate of the ECLIPSE port is other than 2400 baud:

#### 1. Type BAUDRATE

DASHA responds with a menu of standard baudrates,

2. respond with the correct input.

Note that both the host and user terminal operate at the same baudrate, so changing the baudrate requires that the terminal baudrate be adjusted as well.

Both data links should now function - if not the protocol of the host link may be modified by writing the correct data (see Motorola microprocessor components handbook - MC68050) to

1. User ACIA by - HEX (data) STAT1 C1
2. Host ACIA by - HEX (data) STAT2 C1

### A.3 Terminal Simulation Program

Direct communication with the host can be initiated by typing TERSIM - all subsequent user-terminal inputs are relayed to the host and all host outputs are relayed to the user terminal. This mode of communication can be terminated by typing control-A control-E in at the user terminal.

#### A.3.1 Initialising DEPS

Type TERSIM

Sign on to the ECLIPSE in the usual way. Make sure that the DASNA directory is available. Run single precision BASIC - this allows increased length Fourier transforms to be used.

Type X BASICSP

Type E.TEK "WIN"

Type RUN

The ECLIPSE responds with: CODE ?

Now terminate the terminal simulation mode by typing control-A control-E.

### A.4 Data Acquisition

Connect the audio source and anti-aliasing filter as shown in Figure A.1.

#### A.4.1 Sampling Frequency

Determine the required sampling frequency.

Type HEX SAIP-FREQ

DASNA responds with a menu of sampling frequencies. Type in the correct response.

#### A.4.2 Audio Level

Turn on the audio source and check that it does not cause the bargraph to exceed 75% of its maximum value. If it does the input signal can be attenuated via the level control (figure A.1).

Type INIT-SAMP

DASIA is now set in the convert-standby mode and will sample and save analog information following any input above the threshold voltage, and will continue sampling until 64 k memory is filled or the conversion is aborted by typing RESET-SAMP.

Note - when LED 1 (figure A.1) is not lit the system is sampling data and storing it in memory. Do not carry out any operations which use the DRAH until this light is lit; otherwise the data will be corrupted.

Typing RESET-SAMP at any stage causes a return to the DASIA system and halts conversions.

#### A.5 Evaluating the data

Type PLOT

DASIA responds with START ADDRESS ?. The response to this determines the beginning of the data which will be graphically displayed on the user terminal.

The PLOT routine allows the user to check the data in DRAH prior to it being loaded down to the ECLIPSE. It is useful to determine the number of samples that contain the entire audio waveform, this number should be noted for data transfer to the ECLIPSE.

#### A.6 Uploading the Data

Type TERSH

Make sure that the ECLIPSE is prompting with CODE ?

Type FILE



Enter a destination filename for the data. The ECLIPSE prompts again with CODE ?.

Type control-A control-E to return to the DASIA system.

Type UPLOAD

DASIA responds with NO OF SAMPLES ? - enter the required number of samples - DASIA will begin uploading the data to the ECLIPSE. A count of the current data byte being transferred is displayed on the user terminal.

After data transfer DASIA is in the terminal-simulation mode and UEPS responds with CODE ?.

The data is now saved in an ascii data file on the ECLIPSE and subsequent processing may be carried out using OEPS or the DASIA analysis-software.

APPENDIX B

ACOUSTIC CHARACTERISTICS OF SELECTED RESONANT BODIES

### B.1 Strings

The musical tones of guitars, violins, pianos, banjos etc. are all characterised by the modes of vibration of stretched strings fixed at both ends. Vibrations in these strings occur at all harmonic frequencies.

$$F_n = f_n n \quad n=1,2,3...$$

Where:  $f$  - fundamental frequency  
 $n$  - harmonic number  
 $F_n$  - frequency of harmonic  $n$

### B.2 Reeds

Reeds vibrate with the modes of vibration of a bar fixed at one end. They are used to excite acoustical resonators in clarinets, oboes, saxophones, etc.

A bar fixed at one end exhibits nonharmonic partial frequencies at the following ratios of the fundamental frequency  $f$ .

$$f; 6,267f; 17,55f; 34,39f$$

### B.3 Pipes

Open pipes - The partial frequencies generated by the air column in open pipes are at harmonics of the fundamental.

$$F_n = f_n n \quad n=1,2,3...$$

Closed pipes - The partial frequencies generated by the air column in pipes closed at one end are at odd harmonics of the fundamental.

$$F_n = f(2n-1) \quad n=1,2,3...$$

#### B.4 Strings on Acoustic Resonators

Acoustic resonators such as soundboards or Helmholtz resonators excited by stretched strings cause certain frequency bands of the excitation waveform to be amplified or attenuated according to the resonant characteristics of the acoustic resonator.

#### B.5 Reeds in Acoustic Tubes

The effective length of the resonant air column is changed by opening and closing holes in the acoustic tube causing a change in the resonant frequency of the air column.

The reed is coupled to the air column, which controls the motion of the reed and hence the fundamental vibration of the reed.

APPENDIX C  
ANALYSIS SOFTWARE

The analysis software is documented in the standard UEPS format.

MACSSPEC - Fourier Analysis of Windowed Data1. Authorship

C.S.Elion

January 1983

2. Purpose

This macro calculates the fourier spectra of successive time windows of the source waveform. The resultant spectra are stored in a data file.

3. Method

The macro reads data from the source file, applies a Hamming window to user specified lengths of the data - which are then Fourier transformed resulting in frequency spectra at time intervals determined by the data window lengths. The resultant spectra are saved in a binary file under the same name as the source file with the extension "sp".

The macro uses five subroutines:

1. RUFIL - read data from the source file into the E array.
2. WIN - apply a Hamming window to the E array.
3. FTSH - (OEPS) shuffle the E array into bit reversed order.
4. FTSN - (OEPS) execute the fast Fourier Transform.
5. MAGN - calculate the magnitude of the Fourier spectrum.

4. Calling sequence

Normal via the code MACSSPEC

5. Initial state

Inmaterial, the program prompts the user for all variable data.

#### 6. Input

Console:

1. Name of source file.
2.  $N1$  - window length index, window length is calculated as  $N1^2 = 2 * N1$ .
3.  $N0$  - number of windows, this should be calculated by the user according to the no of samples in the source file (see Caution - below).

#### 7. Output

Console:

1. Name of file in which spectral data is saved.

File:

1. Spectral data saved.

#### 8. Final state

Data saved in file.

#### 9. Caution

Be sure to calculate the correct data lengths or an error message will be displayed when the program attempts to read data beyond the end of the source file.

For example:

If 2000 hex samples have been uploaded from DAS/A to the  
ECLIPSE - this implies that there are 16 time windows of  
512 samples each ie.:

N1=9

W0=16





HACSHAK - Determine Harmonic Profile Data1. Authorship

C.S.Ellion

January 1983

2. Purpose

This macro calculates and saves data which represents the time evolution of the individual harmonics of the source waveform.

3. Method

The macro uses a cepstrum technique to determine the pitch-period of the original tone by calculating the inverse fourier transform of the log amplitude spectrum of the original tone at a point where its time waveform is approximately steady state. The pitch-period information is used to calculate the time evolution of each harmonic from spectral data previously calculated by the macro HMCSSPEC. The resultant data is saved in a binary data file under the name of the source file with the extension "H".

The macro uses six subroutines:

1. FTST - (OEPS) sort the E array prior to inverse fourier transform.
2. FTSH - (OEPS) shuffle E array into bit reversed order.
3. FFTY - (OEPS) perform the fast Fourier Transform.
4. MAGH - calculate the magnitude of the fourier spectrum (cepstrum) and find the index of the peak value after the dc component (pitch period) in the cepstrum.
5. AMPL - use the peak value calculated in MAGH to extract harmonic amplitude information from the fourier spectra of the source waveform.
6. SAVE - save the data calculated by AMPL in a binary data file.

4. Calling sequence

Normal via code MACSHAK

5. Initial state

The data file created by executing MACSSPEC must exist.  
The user is prompted for all variables.

6. Input

Console:

1. HU - The number of harmonics to be calculated.

File:

1. Data file containing spectral information calculated by MACSSPEC.

7. Output

Console:

1. Name of file in which harmonic data is stored.

File:

1. Harmonic data.

8. Final state

Harmonic data stored in file.

9. Caution

ANALYSIS SOFTWARE

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HACSSPEC must be executed prior to this macro.

## 10. Listing

```

1000 REM *****ALBMAN
1010 PRINT "SOURCE FILENAME"
1020 INPUT S$
1030 LET S$=S$,"H"
1040 LET S$=S$,"SP"
1050 PRINT "READING FROM:",S$
1060 PRINT "DESTINATION FILE:",S$
1070 PRINT "NO OF HANDLES"
1080 INPUT N
1090 OPEN FILE (1),S$
1100 READ FILE (1),A
1110 LET A=1/(A/5)
1120 LET A=A-1
1130 LET A2=2/A
1140 LET A3=A2/2
1150 LET A4=A2-1
1160 GOTO 1100
1170 FOR I=1 TO N
1180   READ FILE (1),V
1190   IF I=1
1200     FOR J=1 TO 12
1210       LET Z(1,J)=LDS(V(I))
1220       LET T(2,J)=0
1230     NEXT J
1240     WRITE "ALBMAN"
1250     WRITE Z(1)
1260     WRITE "ALBMAN"
1270     WRITE Z(2)
1280     WRITE "ALBMAN"
1290     WRITE Z(3)
1300     WRITE "ALBMAN"
1310     WRITE Z(4)
1320     CLOSE
1330 OPEN FILE (1),S$
1340 READ FILE (1),A
1350 LET A2=2/A
1360 LET A3=A2/2
1370 LET A4=A2-1
1380 FOR K=1 TO N
1390   READ FILE (1),V
1400   WRITE "ALBMAN"
1410   WRITE Z(1)
1420   READ A
1430   CLOSE
1440   WRITE "ALBMAN"
1450   WRITE Z(1)
1460   WRITE Z(2)
1470 REM *****ALBMAN

```

MACSSPLOT - Plot of Amplitude-Time-Spectrum1. Authorship

C.S.Elion

January 1983

2. Purpose

This macro plots a perspective of the spectral data calculated by MACSSPEC. The data is plotted in such a manner as to give the impression of a three dimensional plot of Amplitude-vs-Frequency-vs-Time. The amplitude scale may be linear, logarithmic or squared.

3. Method

The macro uses the OEPS graphics facility. The 3-D perspective is created by shifting the screen window after plotting each spectral window.

The macro uses two subroutines:

1. PLOTV - plot the contents of the V array.
2. TWV - calculate a data limit window for the V array.

4. Calling sequence

Normal via the code MACSSPLOT

5. Initial state

The OEPS graphics must be initialised by GINIT.

6. Input

Console:

1. S8\$ - Name of source file.
2. S7\$ - LOG, LIN or POW - indicates log, linear or power

spectrum plot.

3. K8 - number of points of each spectrum to be plotted.
4. K4, K5, K6, K7 - coordinates of the plot on the display/plotter.

7. Output

Console:

1. Plot of the contents of the source file on the display/plotter.

8. Final state

All variables used are changed.

9. Caution

The spectra must have been calculated by IACSSPEC prior to using this macro.

## 10. Listing

[illegible]



MACSHPLLOT - Plot of Harmonic Profile

1. Authorship C.S.Elion                      January 1966

2. Purpose

This macro plots a perspective of the harmonic activity of the source waveform as calculated by MACSHAR.

3. Method

The macro uses the OEPS graphics and creates a 3-D impression by shifting the screen window after plotting each harmonic.

The following subroutines are used:

1. GET - reads data from the source file into the H matrix.
2. PLOT'1 - plots the contents of the H matrix, moving the screen window after plotting each harmonic - to give a 3-D visual effect.

4. Calling sequence

Normal via code MACSHPLLOT.

5. Initial state

The OEPS graphics must be initialised by GINI1.

6. Input

Console:

1. S0\$ - name of source file.

File:

1. Data for harmonic plot.

MACSHPL0T - Plot of Harmonic Profile

1. Authorship C.S.Elion                      January 1983
2. Purpose

This macro plots a perspective of the harmonic activity of the source waveform as calculated by MACSHAR.

3. Method

The macro uses the OEPS graphics and creates a 3-D impression by shifting the screen window after plotting each harmonic.

The following subroutines are used:

1. GET - reads data from the source file into the H matrix.
2. PLUT11 - plots the contents of the H matrix, moving the screen window after plotting each harmonic - to give a 3-D visual effect.

4. Calling sequence

Normal via code MACSHPL0T.

5. Initial state

The OEPS graphics must be initialised by GINI1.

6. Input

Console:

1. S8\$ - name of source file.

File:

1. Data for harmonic plot.

7. Output.

Console:

1. S2S - name of destination file.

Graphic plot of the harmonic profile of the source data on the console/plotter.

8. Final state

All variables used are changed.

9. Caution

The harmonic data must have been calculated by ;ACSHAR.

## 10. Listing

[illegible]

HACSTPLOT - Temporal Plot of Source Waveform1. Authorship

C.S.Elion

January 1983

2. Purpose

This macro allows the source waveform to be plotted. Its usefulness is in that the amplitude envelope of the waveform may be graphically examined.

3. Method

The macro uses the OEPS graphics to plot the waveform.

The following subroutines are used:

1. R0FILE - reads data from source file into the E array.
2. PLOTV - plots the contents of the V array.
3. TWV - calculates a data limit window from the contents of the V array.

4. Calling sequence

Normal via code HACSTPLOT.

5. Initial state

The OEPS graphics must be initialised by GINIT.

6. Input

Console:

1. SBS - name of source data file.
2. N1 - index for calculation of the number of points in each time window

MACSTPLOT - Temporal Plot of Source waveform1. Authorship

C.S.Ellion

January 1983

2. Purpose

This macro allows the source waveform to be plotted. Its usefulness is in that the amplitude envelope of the waveform may be graphically examined.

3. Method

The macro uses the OEPS graphics to plot the waveform.

The following subroutines are used:

1. RDFILE - reads data from source file into the E array.
2. PLOTV - plots the contents of the V array.
3. TWV - calculates a data limit window from the contents of the V array.

4. Calling sequence

Normal via code MACSTPLOT.

5. Initial state

The OEPS graphics must be initialised by GINIT.

6. Input

Console:

1. SWS - name of source data file.
2. I11 - index for calculation of the number of points in each time window

- 3. WU - number of windows of length  $2**N1$  to be plotted.
- 4. K6,K7,K8,K9 - coordinates of the plot on the display/plotter.

7. Output

Plot of selected number of windows on the display/plotter.

8. Final state

All variables used changed.

9. Caution

Be sure to calculate the correct data lengths or an error message will be displayed when the program attempts to read data beyond the end of the source file.

For example:

If 2000 hex samples have been uploaded from DASMA to the ECLIPSE - this implies that there are 16 time windows of 512 samples each ie.:

N1=9  
WU=16

[illegible]



RUFILE - Read Ascii Coded Data File1. Authorship

C.S.Elion

January 1983

2. Purpose

DASHA saves data in an ascii file via the routine UPLD. The resultant data records are 10 datum long and the data file has sequential access only. This means that because of the sequential nature of the file, only sequential records of 10 datum length can normally be read. It is required, however to read data lengths which are a power of 2 long for the purposes of spectral analysis. READFILE allows reading of any length data records from the source file.

3. Method

RUFILE implements a temporary data buffer in the X array. If, say, 512 datum are required from the source file, then 520 datum are read from the file and the 8 remaining datum are saved in the x-array until a further 512 datum are required. Then the first 8 datum are taken from the x-array, and the remainder read from the source file as above.

4. Calling sequence

Normal via RUFILE

5. Initial state

The input data file must be opened on channel 1. The following variables must be initialised:

1. K - window number to be read.
2. N2 - number of datum required per read.

6. Input

Ascii coded data from the opened file.

7. Output

nil

8. Final state

N2 numbers from file(1) in the E array.

9. Caution

The sequential file is read by this routine in a loop where K is the loop index and is incremented from 1 to the number of windows contained in the file.

## 10. Listing

[illegible]

WIN - Hamming Window1. Authorship

C.S.Elion

January 1983

2. Purpose

The subroutine applies a hamming window to the time data prior to spectral analysis.

3. method

The Hamming window is given by:

$$W(n) = X(n) * (0.54 + 0.46 * \cos\{[(I-1)/N/2 - 0.5] * 2\pi\})$$

4. Calling sequence

Normal via WIN

5. Initial state

1. N2 - length of data to be windowed.

2. E(1,I) - holds data to be windowed.

6. Input

nil

7. Output

nil

8. Final state

Data in E array is windowed by a Hamming window.

9. Caution

nil



MAGN - Magnitude of Spectral Data1. Authorship

C.S.Elion

January 1983

2. Purpose

The routine calculates the magnitude of the fourier spectrum and finds the index of the largest spectral component (excluding the dc component).

3. Method

The complex arithmetic utility is invoked to calculate the magnitude.

An assumption is made that the spectral components exist at frequencies greater than 1/25th of the sampling frequency. The magnitude of the largest spectral component is thus found by searching the magnitude of the spectrum from frequency values above 1/25th of the sampling frequency to 1/2 the sampling frequency.

4. Calling sequence

Normal via code MAGN

5. Initial state

1. E(1,1) - real values of fourier data.
2. E(2,1) - imaginary values of fourier data.
3. N2 - number of samples in E array .
4. N3 - N2/2.

6. Input

nil

7. Output

nil

3. Initial state

1.  $V(I)$  - magnitude of fourier analysis data.
2.  $P$  -  $N2$  divided by the index of the max value of the  $V$   
by (pitch).

4. Caution

nil



## 10. Listing

[illegible]

AMPL - Amplitude of Spectral Harmonics1. Authorship

C.S.Elion

January 1983

2. Purpose

This subroutine determines the maximum value of the amplitudes of the fourier partials at near-integer multiples of the fundamental. The data is calculated from Fourier-transformed portions of the source waveform, and is saved in the H-matrix.

3. Method

The pitch (P) determined by the subroutine PITCH is used to search the fourier spectrum at frequencies (F) in the range:

$$P-P/2 < F < P+P/2$$

The resulting values are stored in the H-matrix.

4. Calling Sequence

Normal via code AMPL

5. Initial State

1. H0=number of partials to be extracted
2. H3=half the number of fourier points
3. A0=pitch of source waveform
4. V(I)=fourier power spectrum of source waveform

6. Input

nil

7. Output

nil

8. Final State

H(K,I)=harmonic amplitude information

9. Caution

nil

## 10. Listing

[illegible]

SAVE - Save Data in H-Matrix1. Authorship

C.S. Elion

January 1983

2. Purpose

This subroutine opens a binary file and writes the contents of the H-matrix to it.

3. Method

Self-explanatory

4. Calling Sequence

normal via code SAVE

5. Initial State

1. S9\$ - destination filename
2. N1 - window length index
3. N0 - no. of harmonics
4. M0 - no. of windows
5. H(I,J) - harmonic amplitude data

6. Input

nil

7. Output

1. Data from H-matrix.

8. Final State

Harmonic data saved in binary file.

9. Caution

nil

## 10. Listing

```
2000 READ>>>>>>>>SAVE  
2010 OPEN FILE (1),596  
2020 WRITE FILE (1),#1,#0,#0  
2030 NEW WRITE FILE (1),#  
2040 CLOSE  
2050 REFINISH  
2060 READ<<<<<<<<<<<<<SAVE
```

GET - Read Data File into H-matrix

1. Authorship

C.S.Elion

January 1983

2. Purpose

Used to read data files previously saved by SAVE into the H-matrix.

3. Method

Self-explanatory

4. Calling Sequence

normal via GET

5. Initial State

1. S2S - Source filename

6. Input

File:

1. data in the H-matrix.

7. Output

nil

8. Final State

Data read into H-matrix

9. Caution



ANALYSIS SOFTWARE

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· n11

## 10. Listing

[illegible]

PLUT11 - Perspective Plot of Harmonic Data1. Authorship

C.S.Elfon

January 1983

2. Purpose

Used to plot the harmonic landscape from data in the H-matrix.

3. Method

A three dimensional impression of the harmonic landscape is created by shifting the data limit window after each harmonic is plotted.

4. Calling Sequence

Normal via code PLUT11

5. Initial State

1. NU - number of harmonics
2. NU - number of time windows
3. N1 - window length index
4. N2 - window length =  $2*N1$

6. Input

nil

7. Output

Console:

1. Graphic plot on display/plotter.

nil

8. Final State

Plot on terminal/plotter

9. Caution

nil



PLOTV - Plot Data and Shift Data Limit Window1. Authorship

C.S. Elton

January 1983

2. Purpose

This subroutine is used by MASSPLOT to create a perspective plot of the fourier transformed data from the source waveform.

3. Method

Each spectrum is plotted and the data limit window is subsequently shifted - giving a three dimensional impression of the data.

4. Calling Sequence

Normal via code PLOTV.

5. Initial State

1. V(I) - data to be plotted.
2. N2 - no. of points.

6. Input

nil

7. Output

Console:

1. plot on display/plotter.

8. Final State

Plot on terminal/plotter.

9. Caution

n11

[illegible]



TWV - data limit window from V-array

1. Authorship

C.S.Elion                      January 1983

2. Purpose

Calculates a data limit window to scale the data in the V-array to the screen window.

3. Method

Uses graphics core routine "DL".

4. Calling Sequence

Normal via code TWV.

5. Initial State

1. V(I) - plot data
2. N2 - max dimension of V-array

6. Input

nil

7. Output

nil

8. Final State

Data limit window calculated.

9. Caution

ANALYSIS SOFTWARE

PAGE C-44

n11



UPLD - Upload Data from DASHA1. Authorship

C.S. Elton

January 1983

2. Purpose

This subroutine interfaces to the DASHA system by interacting with the DASHA-FORTH routine, UPLD. It loads data transmitted over the RS-232 link by DASHA into an ASCII data file.

3. Method

The data format on the RS-232 link is 10 datum plus one flag. UPLD saves the data in a file, checks the flag, if the flag indicates more data to come it sends the BASIC INPUT statement prompt to DASHA (space-?-space).

4. Calling Sequence

Normal via code UPLD (usually called by the DASHA routine which transmits the characters U P L D to the Eclipse).

5. Initial State

The sequential access file must be opened on channel 1.

6. Input

1. A,B,C,D,E,F,G,H,I,J - ASCII encoded data.

2. K - status flag:

K=1 indicates data to be  
transmitted by DASHA.  
K=0 indicates end of the data  
stream.

7. Output

File:

1. ASCII encoded data.

8. Final State

Data saved in sequential access file.

9. Caution

nil



## APPENDIX D

### A PROGRAM DESCRIPTION LANGUAGE (PDL)

#### D.1 describing FORTH using a PDL

high level FORTH programs are usually descriptive and thus easily understood. The high-level words in the FORTH vocabulary often consist of other high-level FORTH words. The example of chapter 4 can be extended:

```
: CONTROLTEMP
  BEGIN
    TESTTEMP
    IFHOT
      TAPON
    IFCOOL
      TAPOF
  AGAIN ;
```

This defines the word CONTROLTEMP whose function is easily understood by an examination of its component procedures (words). These words could, on the other hand, be constructed from low-level FORTH words or even FORTH-assembler instructions - making their appearance low-level and unreadable.

A Program Description Language is useful for developing and documenting software. It provides a "structured-english" description of the software functions. The PDL obeys programming constructs based on those proposed by Young [10]. Further modifications of the PDL to suit the FORTH environment are included in this appendix.

Translation from PDL to FORTH is simplified by implementing the FORTH parameter stack as a PDL data-structure. The FORTH parameter stack allows parameters to be passed between high level FORTH words. Parameters pushed on the stack by any previous operation remain on the stack until a subsequent operation pops them off and uses them.

The PDL stack is used as follows:

```
stack := expression
```

```
expression := stack
```

The former evaluates the expression and pushes its value onto the stack. The latter removes the top value off the stack and assigns its value to the expression.

The following programming structures are used throughout the PDL.

1. {UF4AH} - indirection - refers to the data contained at CPU address UF4AH.
2. [number1<number2] - conditional - a conditional statement associated with conditional program execution.
3. [comment] - comment - may be placed anywhere in the program
4. data-pointer - an address at which variable data is held and is addressed by indirection.
5. address-pointer - a constant address at which variable address information is held and addressed by indirection.

Variables are created by assigning constant values to symbols - the constant value being the machine address at which the variable data is stored in RAM. The constant values are data-pointers or address-pointers and are used to address the data or address variable.

Variables are declared in the PDL by:

```
{CU:data-pointer} := 0
```

This indicates a data variable of type data, pointed to by constant 00 of type data-pointer which is initially assigned the value 0. Software routines are defined on three levels:



1. MODULE
2. PROGRAM
3. PROCEDURE

These are the same as defined by Young.

#### D.2 Parameter Passing

All parameters are defined at the beginning of the software listing and are universal to all modules, programs and procedures - as are FORTH parameters universal to FORTH words.

FORTH parameters are often passed via the FORTH parameter stack. Assembly level parameters are passed via the accumulator. The PDL facilitates these two levels of parameter passing by:

INPUTS: stack(2)  
OUTPUTS: stack(1)

or

INPUTS: accumulator

The former is used in describing a FORTH procedure requiring two items on the stack prior to its execution - and one parameter left on the stack due to its execution.

The latter indicates an assembly level routine which operates on the contents of the accumulator.

The lack of the INPUTS or OUTPUTS statement prior to a routine indicates no parameters passed to or from the routine.

#### D.3 FORTH words used in the PDL

1. DUP - Duplicates the top value on the stack.
2. /MOD - Leaves the remainder and signed quotient of n1/n2. The remainder has the sign of the dividend, where n1 and n2 are the uppermost numbers on the stack prior to execution.

3. KEY - Leaves the ascii value of the next user terminal key struck.
4. ERIT - Transmits the ascii character unpermost on the stack to the user terminal.
5. ?TERMINAL - Tests the user terminal keyboard for actuation, leaves a true flag to indicate actuation.
6. CR - Transmits a carriage return and line feed to the user terminal.

APPENDIX E

SOFTWARE LISTING

```

1
2
3      ASSEMBLY LANGUAGE BOOTSTRAP
4
5

```

```

      *J5BX*
      PROG EQU 0F000H

```

```

FORTH EQU 00000H
BAUDL EQU 09FE0H
STAT1 EQU 09FE1H
DAT1 EQU 09FE2H
STAT2 EQU 09FE3H
DAT2 EQU 09FE4H
ERC EQU 01BH
CR EQU 00DH
LF EQU 00AH
CNT1 EQU 000H
RPT1 EQU 00CH
WPT1 EQU 00DH

```

```

INIT  LDH  0FFH      ; processor and ACI
      TXS          ; initialization st
      CLD          ; clear decimal mode
      SEI          ; clear interrupt enable
      LDA  004H
      STA BAUDL      ; baud rate 2400 default
      LDA  0FFH
      STA STAT1
      STA STAT2      ; reset ACIAs
      LDH  000H
      STA STAT1
      STA STAT2      ; set ACIAs

```

```

1
2      INITIALIZE FORTH VARIABLES
3

```

```

      LDA  014H      ; NSAMP
      STA 00274H
      LDA  000H
      STA 00275H
      LDA  000H      ; MAXI
      STA 00276H
      LDA  000H
      STA 00277H
      LDA  000H      ; MINI
      STA 00278H
      LDA  0F0H
      STA 00279H

```

```

        LDA 041h      ; COLS
        STA 0027AH
        LDA 000H
        STA 0027EH
        STA 000FEH    ; rubout flag

```

```

        JMP FORTH

```

```

;
;
;
;
; I/O ROUTINES
;
OUCHCK LDA STAT1      ; poll status reg until
        AND 002H      ; TRANSMIT buffer empty
        BEQ OUCHCK
        RTS

INCHCK  LDA STAT1      ; poll status reg until
        AND 001H      ; RECEIVE buffer full
        BEQ INCHCK
        RTS

OUTERM  PHA            ; check status ACIA
        JSR OUCHCK
        PLA
        CMP R08H      ; if char is RUBOUT
        BEQ RUBOUT     ; to rubout routine
        STA DAT1       ; output data
        RTS

INTERM  JSR INCHCK     ; check status ACIA
        LDA DAT1       ; get data
        CMP ESC        ; if data is ESC
        BEQ ESCAPE     ; to escape routine
        RTS

RUBOUT  LDA 000FEH      ; check rubout flag
        BEQ RUB1       ; if info on RUB1
        LDA 00RH
        STA DAT1
        RTS

RUB1    LDA 01AH        ; implements rubout
        JSR OUTERM     ; on info on terminal
        LDA 02RH
        JSR OUTERM
        LDA 01AH

```

JSR QUTERM  
RTS

TRCHCK LDA STAT1 ; code for FORTH word  
AND 001H ; ?TERMINAL  
JMP 00517H

CRLF LDA CR ; code for FORTH word  
JSR QUTERM ; CR  
LDA LF  
JSR QUTERM  
JMP 0005AH

ESCAPE PLA ; fix machine stack  
PLA ; and perform a worm  
JMP 00003H ; start

;  
; INTERRUPT SERVICE ROUTINE

INTPT PHA ; save accumulator  
TXA  
PHA  
LDX WPT1  
LDA DAT2 ; get data  
STA 0700H,X ; save in buffer  
INC CNT1  
INX ; increment buffer pointer  
TXA  
STA WPT1  
PLA  
TAX  
PLA  
RTI

```

(*****DATA ACQUISITION SYSTEM FOR MUSICAL*****
(*****TONE ANALYSIS*****
(*****SYSTEM SOFTWARE*****
(*****
(The software operates on four levels:
(
(      1. Bootstrap Routines
(      2. Utility Routines
(      3. Test Routines
(      4. User Routines
(The bootstrap programs are all assembly level
(as documented above, Utility, Test and user routines)
(are written in FORTH and FORTH-assembler where
(execution speed is required.
(*****UTILITY ROUTINES*****
(*****

```

```

HEX
0FF0 CONSTANT SAMPRT
0FF0 CONSTANT RUCLOCK
0FF1 CONSTANT STAT1
0FF2 CONSTANT DAT1
0FF3 CONSTANT STAT2
0FF4 CONSTANT DAT2
0700 CONSTANT BUFF1
00  CONSTANT BUFF2
00  CONSTANT CNT1
00  CONSTANT RPT1
01  CONSTANT WPT1
00  CONSTANT EFLG
00  CONSTANT CNT2
0FF0 CONSTANT ALATCH
0FF1 CONSTANT DLATCH
0FF5 CONSTANT CLATCH
0FF7 CONSTANT BLATCH1
030  CONSTANT ADRF
030  CONSTANT ADRT
040  CONSTANT ADM
042  CONSTANT DB
044  CONSTANT D1
046  CONSTANT D2
048  CONSTANT D3
04A  CONSTANT D4
04C  CONSTANT ERR
04E  CONSTANT PASS
070  CONSTANT ADR0
072  CONSTANT ADR1

```

274 CONSTANT NSAMP  
 276 CONSTANT MAXI  
 278 CONSTANT MINI  
 27 CONSTANT COLS  
 27C CONSTANT POS  
 27E CONSTANT AXIS

(\*\*\*\*\*USER TERMINAL I/O\*\*\*\*\*)

```
; IN-1      (read 1 ascii coded number)
PAD 1 EXPECT (from input device and leave)
0 0 PAD 1 -  (decimal value on the)
(NUMBER)     (parameter stack)
2DROP ;
```

```
; IN-2      (read 2 ascii coded numbers)
PAD 2 EXPECT (from input device and leave)
0 0 PAD 1 -  (decimal values on the)
(NUMBER)     (parameter stack)
2DROP ;
```

```
; IN-3      (read 3 ascii coded numbers)
PAD 3 EXPECT (from input device and leave)
0 0 PAD 1 -  (decimal values on the)
(NUMBER)     (parameter stack)
2DROP ;
```

```
; IN-4      (read 4 ascii coded numbers)
PAD 4 EXPECT (from input device and leave)
0 0 PAD 1 -  (decimal values on the)
(NUMBER)     (parameter stack)
2DROP ;
```

(\*\*\*\*\*DRAM I/O ROUTINES\*\*\*\*\*)

```
; D/P      (Writes the top word on the parameter)
BLATCH !   (stack to the location in DRAM addressed)
ALATCH !   (by the next word on the stack)
3 CTLATCH C! ;
```

```
; I/P      (Reads data from the DRAM location)
ALATCH !   (addressed by the word on top of the stack)
1 CTLATCH C!
BLATCH1 0
```



\*\*\*\*\*OBJECT CODE DUMP ROUTINES\*\*\*\*\*

```

HEX          (Initialise ACIA= for 1200 baud)
CODE SETUP  (no-parity serial communication)
XSAVE STX,   (with intelligent PROM programmer)
A8 LDA,      (i.e. HP 64000.)
9FEB STA,
FF LDA,
9FE1 STA,
9FE3 STA,
B2 LDA,
9FE1 STA,
9FE3 STA,
XSAVE LDX,
NEXT JMP,
END-CODE

```

```

CODE CHECK  (Read status register ACIA2)
XSAVE STX,  (until Tx-register empty flag)
BGIN,       (is set.)
9FE3 LDA,
B2 AND,
B= NOT UNTIL,
XSAVE LDX,
NEXT JMP,
END-CODE

```

```

CODE INRW   (Read status register ACIA2)
XSAVE STX,  (until Rx-register full flag)
BGIN,       (is set.)
9FE3 LDA,
B2 AND,
B= NOT UNTIL,
9FE4 LDA,
XSAVE LDX,
PUSHWA JMP,
END-CODE

```

```

: OUTREM    (Output character on the stack)
CHECK       (via ACIA2.)
9FE4 C! ;

```

```

CODE ASC    (Convert the data word on the)

```

```

1 LDA,          (parameter stack to its ASCII)
SETUP JSR,      (equivalent.)
N LDA,
A CMP,
BC JF,
    3B ADC,
ELSE,
    3A ADC,
ENDIF,
PUSHAA JMP,
END-CODE

```

```

1 ASCOUT        (Output the ASCII value of the)
DUP FB AND     (data word on the parameter stack)
IR /           (via ACIA2.)
ASC OUTREM
BF AND
ASC OUTREM ;

```

```

; DUMP          (Format the object code in CPU RAM.
HEX            (set locations ADDR to ADRT as a PRGM)
B ADM 1        (listing file on the HP 3400B - then)
, ' FROM ? '   (transmit this data.)
IN-4
CR
ADDR 1
, ' T ? '
IN-4
CR
ADRT 1
SETUP
BEGIN
    05 OUTREM
    BEGIN
        INREM
        0A =
    UNTIL
    3C OUTREM
    ADM DUP 1 + CB ASCOUT CB ASCOUT
    3E OUTREM
    IR B DO
        2B OUTREM
        ADDR DUP 0 CB ASCOUT
        1 SWAP +!
    LOOP
    0D OUTREM
    IR ADM +!

```

```

      ADDR @ ADRT @ )
UNTIL
@ ADM ! ;

(*****TEST ROUTINES*****
(*****TEST ROUTINES*****
(*****TEST ROUTINES*****

1 INC                      (Increments test address and checks)
ADDR @ 1 + ADDR !         (if 12 bits have been tested,)
DB @ S00 = IF
      1 DE !
      ELSE
      DB @ 2 * DB !
THEN ;

1 T1                      (Write memory test pattern.)
CR , * TEST PATTERN WRITE *
@ ADDR !
BEGIN
      ADDR @ DS @ C/P
      INC
      ADDR @ -1 =
UNTIL
1

1 T2                      (Verify data pattern in the)
CR , * TEST PATTERN VERIFY * (DRAM,)
ADDR ADDR !
BEGIN
      ADDR @ I/P DUP
      DB @ = IF
      DROP
      INC
      ELSE
      ERR @ 1 + ERR !
      ADDR @ . ,
      INC
THEN
ADDR @ -1 =
UNTIL
CR , * PASS * PASS @ . , * COMPLETE * ERR @ . , * ERRORS *
CR ;

1 MEMTEST                (Perform walking-bit memory test)

```

```

0 ERR !           (routine to verify reliable)
1 PASS !         (operation of the DRAM.)
1 DI !
1 DI !
1 ADDR !
BEGIN
    DI @ DR !
    T1
    DI @ DR !
    T2
    DI @ 2 * DUP DI !
    PASS @ 1 + PASS !
    ADDR =
    UNTIL !

(*****UTILITY ROUTINES*****
(*****UTILITY ROUTINES*****
(*****UTILITY ROUTINES*****

(*****PLOT ROUTINE*****

: PLOT           (Convert 12 bit to 14 bit 2's complement)
DUP             (representation.)
AND
160 160
160 160
160 160
160 160

: PLOT           (Plot points on screen.)
DUP @ 1 + 1 00
FOR @ 1 = 160 * * ELSE
MAXI @ 1 = 160 * * ELSE
REPEAT THEN THEN

: PLOT
: PLOT

: PLOT           (Calculate position of)
: PLOT @ @ DR           (points on screen.)
ADDR @ 1 + 1 00
DUP @ 1
DI @ MINI @ - COLS @ MAX
MAXI @ MINI @ - MAXI @ 160 : DROP
@ MINI @ - COLS @ MAX
MAXI @ MINI @ - MAXI @ 160 : DROP
: PLOT
: PLOT

```

```

; PLOT                                (Rough plot of NSAMP data values)
; * START ADDRESS = ?*                (in DRAM beginning from ADDR0.)
IN-4 ADDR0 !
CR
REGI0, P,
NSAMP @ ADDR0 @ + ADDR0 !
; * MORE ?*
PAD ! EXPECT
PAD @ 4E =
CR
UNTIL ;

```

\*\*\*\*\*TERMINAL SIMULATION ROUTINE\*\*\*\*\*

```

CODE IERSIM (Terminal simulation routine)
XSAVE RTX, (DASMA allows direct user interaction)
82 LDA, (with the host computer by relaying any)
EFLR STA, (input at the user terminal to the)
@ LDA, (host data link, and any input at the host)
TAY, (data link to then user terminal via a)
TAX, (circular buffer.)
RPT1 STA,
WPT1 STA,
CNT1 STA,
CNT2 STA,
82 LDA,
STAT2 STA,
CLI,
BEGIN.
    CNT1 LDX,
    @= NOT IF,
        STAT1 LDA,
        82 AND,
        @= NOT IF,
            RPT1 LDX,
            RUFF1 ,X LDA,
            DAT1 STA,
            CNT1 DEC,
            INX,
            RPT1 STX,
        ENDIF,
    ENDIF,
    STAT1 LDA,
    81 AND,
    @= NOT IF,
        DAT1 LDA,
        RUFF2 STA,
        CNT2 INC,
    ENDIF,

```

```

CNT2 LDA,
B= NOT IF,
  STAT2 LDA,
  B2 AND,
  B= NOT IF,
    EFLG LDA,
    B1 CMP,
    B= IF,
      BUFE2 LDA,
      CNT2 DEC,
      B5 CMP,
      B= IF,
        EFLG DEC,
      ELSE,
        B1 LDA,
        DAT2 STA,
        EFLG INC,
      ENDTIF,
    FI RE,
      BUFE2 LDA,
      CNT2 DEC,
      B1 CMP,
      B= IF,
        EFLG DEC,
      ELSE,
        DAT2 STA,
      ENDTIF,
    ENDTIF,
  ENDTIF,
  EFLR LDA,
  B= UNTIL,
  SET,
  XSAVE IDY,
  NEXT JMP,
END-CODE

(*****GENERAL COMMUNICATIONS ROUTINES*****)

CODE IACPSE      (Data in the accumulator is)
PHA,             (transmitted over the host serial)
BEGIN,           (link when the Tx-register empty)
STAT2 LDA,       (Flag IACIA23 is set.)
B2 AND,
B= NOT UNTIL,
PLA,
DAT2 STA,
RTS,
END-CODE

```

```

CODE TRMIT      (Puts the top value on the)
1 LDA,          (parameter stack into the)
SETUP JSR,      (accumulator and transmits)
M LDA,          (it to the host.)
' TOCPSE JSR,
NEXT JMP,
END-CCODE

```

## FORTH

```

1 TRANSMIT      (Converts a four figure)
COMP DECIMAL DUP (decimal number into an)
B<              (ASCII encoded string and)
IF              (transmits it over the)
45 TRMIT NEGATE (host data link.)
THEN
1000 /MOD 48 + TRMIT
100 /MOD 48 + TRMIT
10 /MOD 42 + TRMIT
46 + TRMIT HEX ;

```

## ASSEMBLER

```

CODE RDCMR      (Read character from circular)
XSAVE STX,      (buffer - ie character from)
RPT1 LDX,        (host.)
BUFF1 ,X LDA,
CNT1 DEC,
INX,
RPT1 STX,
XSAVE LDX,
STS,
END-CODE

```

```

CODE UP1        (Transmit code to ECLIPSE to)
0 LDA,          (initiate OEFS routine)
RPT1 STA,        (AC$UPLD.)
WPT1 STA,
CNT1 STB,
CLI,
SR LDA,
' TOCPSE JSR,
SR LDA,
' TOCPSE JSR,
4C LDA,
' TOCPSE JSR,

```

```

44 LDA,
   ' TOCPSE JSR,
00 LDA,
   ' TOCPSE JSR,
NEXT JMP,
END-CODE

```

```

CODE UP2      (Wait for prompt from host)
02 LDA,      (space ? space)
EFLG STA,
BEGIN,

```

```

    CNT1 LDA,
    R= NOT IF,
        EFLG LDA,
        01 CMP,
        R= IF,
            ' RDCHR JSR,
            20 CMP,
            R= IF,
                EFLG DEC,
            ELSE,
                EFLG INC,
            ENDIF,
        ELSE,
            ' RDCHR JSR,
            30 CMP,
            R= IF,
                EFLG DEC,
            ENDIF,
        ENDIF,
    EFLG LDA,
    R= UNTIL,
    NEXT JMP,
END-CODE

```

```

FORTH

```

```

; UPLOAD      (Upload DRAM data to)
HEX           (the host, beginning)
CR ." HEX STARTING ADDRESS ? " CR (at address ADDR0 and)
IN-4 CR      (ending at address)
ADDR0 !      (ADDR1 - Under strict)
CR ." HEX NO OF SAMPLES ? " CR (handshake conditions.)
IN-4 CR
ADDR0 @ +
ADDR1 !
UP1

```



```

BEGIN
  UP2
  -9 D4 !
  BEGIN
    ADDR @ I/P
    TRANSMIT
    1 ADDR +!
    20 TRMIT
    D4 @ DUP 1 + D4 !
    @= UNTIL
    ADDR @ ADDR @ UC
    IF
      31 TRMIT
      80 TRMIT
      @
    ELSE
      30 TRMIT
      80 TRMIT
      !
    THEN
      ADDR @ , @D FMIT
  UNTIL
  TPRIM ;

! STAT-1
00 DUP STAT1 C! STAT2 C! (reset ACIA1 and ACIA2 and set)
01 DUP STAT1 C! STAT2 C! ; (baudclock in divide by)
    (2 mode)

! STAT-2
FF DUP STAT1 C! STAT2 C! (reset ACIA1 and ACIA2 and set)
02 DUP STAT1 C! STAT2 C! ; (baudclock in divide by)
    (1 mode)

! BAUDRATE
CR (set the baudrate of the RS 232)
    (links between DASHA and the user)
    * ENTER NO. CORRESPONDING TO REGD. BAUD RATE * CR
    * 0 9600* CR (terminal and DASHA and the host.)
    * 1 7200* CR
    * 2 4800* CR
    * 3 2400* CR
    * 4 1800* CR
    * 5 1200* CR
    * ? *
IN-1 DUP @ = IF STAT-1 D6 BDCLOCK C! ELSE
  DUP 1 = IF STAT-1 C5 BDCLOCK C! ELSE
  DUP 2 = IF STAT-2 E4 BDCLOCK C! ELSE

```

```

      DUP 3 = IF STAT-2 D6 RDCLOCK C! ELSE
      DUP 4 = IF STAT-2 C5 RDCLOCK C! ELSE
      DUP 5 = IF STAT-2 A8 RDCLOCK C! ELSE
      THEN THEN THEN THEN THEN THEN
      DROP CR ;

```

```

; SAMP-FREQ      (Set ADC sampling frequency.)
CR
HEX
; * ENTER NO CORRESPONDING TO REDD, SAMPLING FREQ. *
CR
; * 0  4.7  KHZ* CR
; * 1  7.0  KHZ* CR
; * 2  7.5  KHZ* CR
; * 3  8.1  KHZ* CR
; * 4  8.9  KHZ* CR
; * 5  9.6  KHZ* CR
; * 6  10.5 KHZ* CR
; * 7  11.7 KHZ* CR
; * 8  13.2 KHZ* CR
; * 9  15.1 KHZ* CR
; * A  17.4 KHZ* CR
; * B  21.1 KHZ* CR
; * C  26.4 KHZ* CR
; * D  35.1 KHZ* CR
; * E  52.7 KHZ* CR
; * F IS ZERO FREQ. *
CR
; * 2 *
IN-1 SAMPRT C! CR ;

```

```

; INIT-SAMP      (Set DASMA into convert-standby mode.)
9FFA CF DROP ;

```

```

; RESET-SAMP     (Abort analog to digital conversion)
9FFR CF DROP ;   (or short convert-standby mode.)

```

```

; OPTIONS      (Sign on message.)
CR
; * THE FOLLOWING ARE VALID COMMANDS : * CR CR
; * SYSTEM* A SPACES ,* UTILITY * CR CR
; * SAMP-FREQ* 7 SPACES ,* BAUDRATE*
; * INIT-SAMP* 7 SPACES ,* NENTEST* CR
; * RESET-SAMP* 6 SPACES ,* DUMP* CR

```

```
," PLOT" C SPACES ," I/P " CR  
," TERSIM" A SPACES ," O/P" CR  
," UPLOAD" CR ;
```

```
; MSGE  
CR  
," FORTH BASED AUDIO FREQUENCY DATA ACQUISITION SYSTEM "  
CR  
CR  
OPTIONS ;  
  
FINIS
```

APPENDIX F  
DASHA CIRCUIT DIAGRAMS

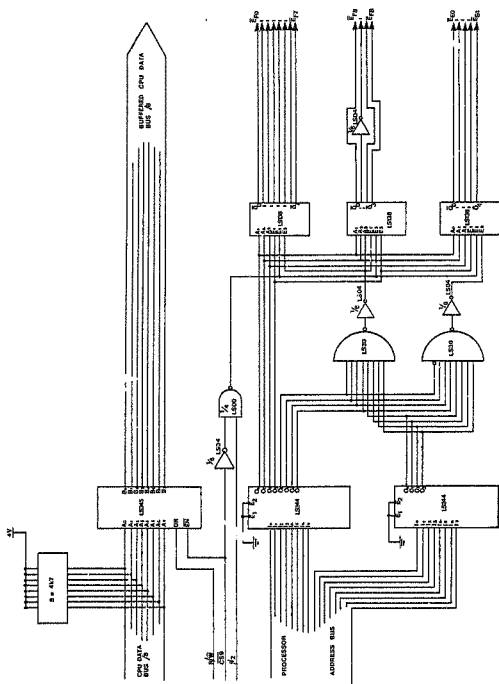


Figure F.1: Processor I/O buffers and address decoding circuitry.

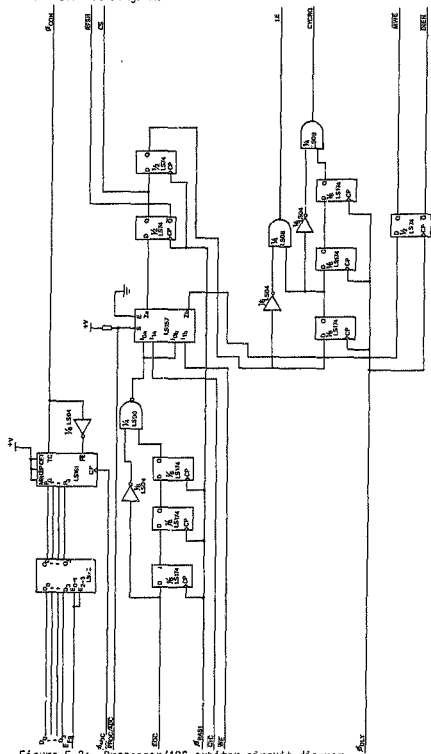


Figure F.2: Processor/ADC arbiter circuit diagram.

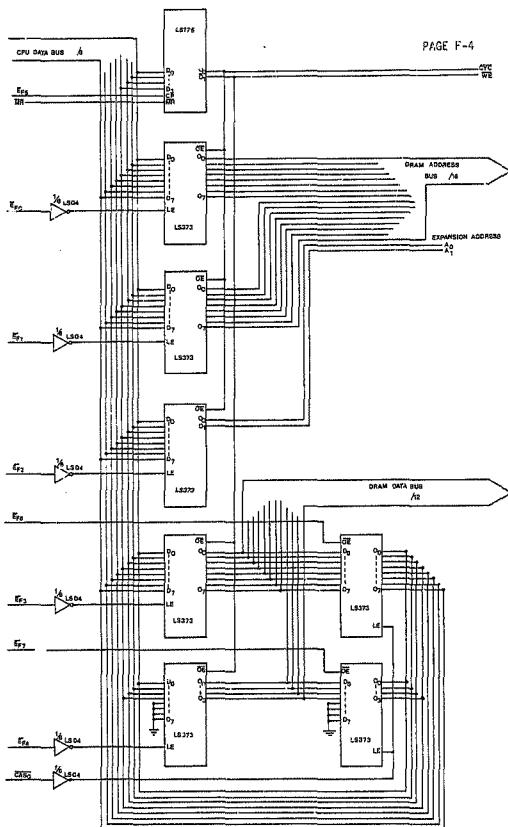


Figure F.3: Dynamic RAM interface circuit diagram.

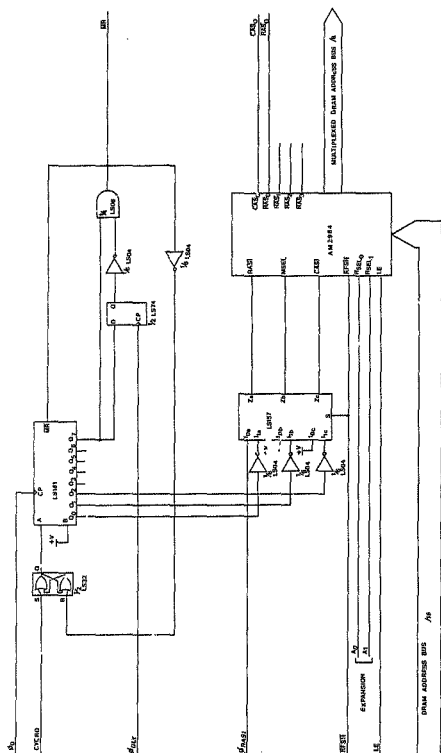


Figure F.4: Dynamic RAM controller circuit diagram.





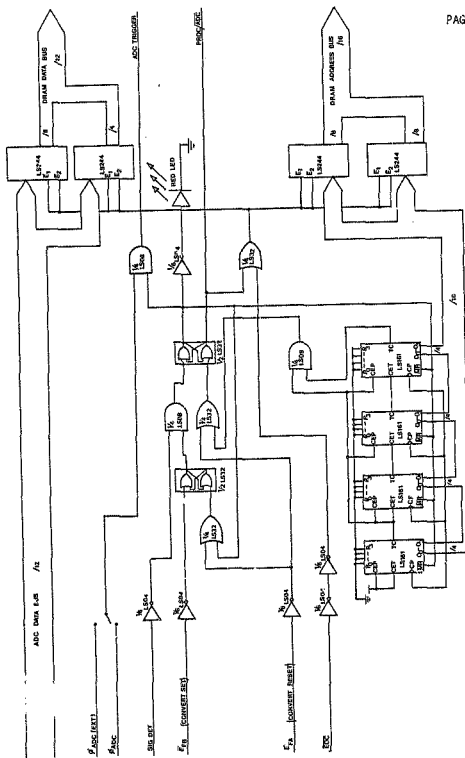


Figure F.5: Analog to digital converter controller.

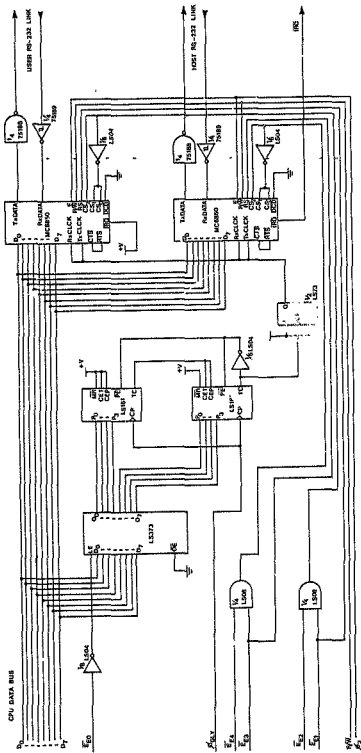


Figure F.6: Serial Input/Output interface circuit diagram.

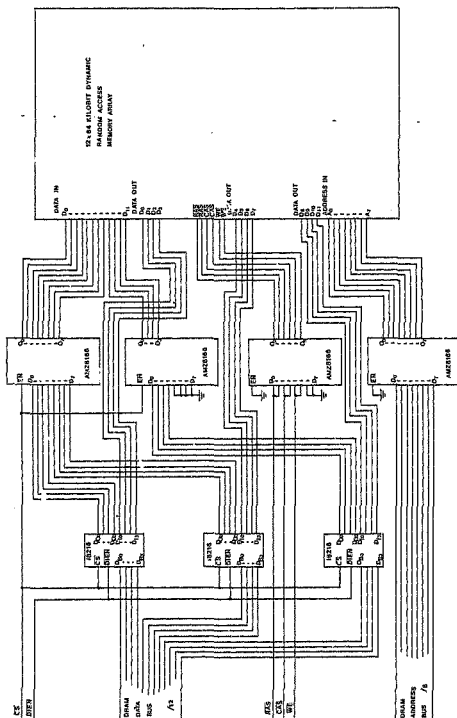
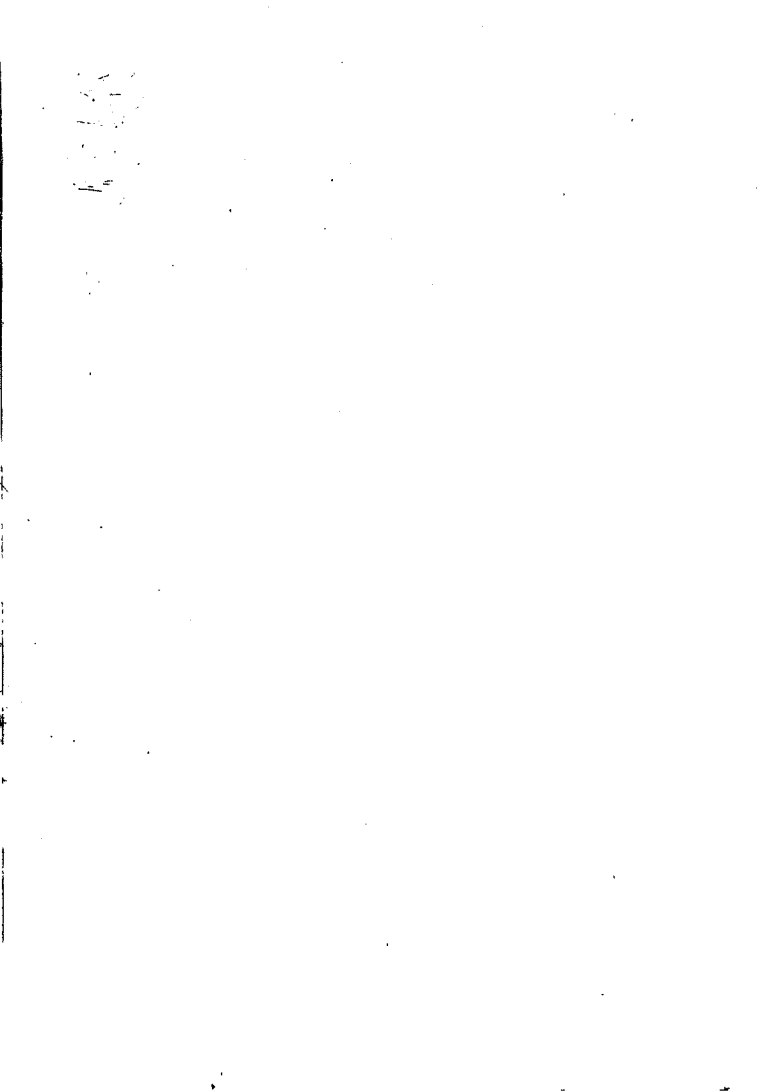


Figure F.7: 64K x 12 bit dynamic ram array.

Figure F.8: 6502 based CPU circuit diagram.



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